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## LIBRARY COST ACCOUNTING<sup>1</sup>

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**M**OST men and women hate "figures." Only a minority (Shall we say a slightly "psychopathic" minority?) really enjoy mathematical computation. Cost accounting is a matter of figures—of many of them. They are figures, furthermore, measuring *work*, and work is never a particularly blithesome subject. And, when a discussion of the measurement of work is in the hands of one not overskilled in its presentation, the net result is likely to be, to most readers, profoundly boring.

Yet there may be a few who, despite this altogether forbidding outlook, sufficiently feel the lure of the unknown, sufficiently delight in the thrill that comes when one looks for the first time upon great mountain ranges—upon mountains whose existence was known but whose exact location had never been charted nor exact altitude ever measured—to plow through the long barren wastes of their forelands, and to have patience to do this even though the wastes be only those of dry words upon white paper, and the hitherto unseen mountain ranges bear only some such unromantic appellation as "Fundamental Financial Facts"!

<sup>1</sup> Based on three years' experience at Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut.

I. IS COST ACCOUNTING APPLICABLE TO  
LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION?

"Cost accounting," as defined in that first aid of college reference rooms, the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, is "a system of accounting designed to show the actual cost of each separate article produced or service rendered." And we have it, on the authority of its sister-encyclopedia, the *Americana*, that it "is the most difficult, and most technical, branch of accounting."

Why has business found cost accounting so essential a part of its administrative machinery? The answer is that with the growing complexity of business, the enormous increase in size of its component parts, and the constantly greater intensity of its competitions, there has developed, of necessity, a correlative intensification and refinement of all its accounting processes. A century ago, for example, the preparation of a general balance sheet once a year was considered quite adequate; now no important business considers it safe to postpone its trial balance more than a month, while all banks, and many thousands of other business firms, balance their account books daily. A century ago mercantile firms took inventory once a year; today almost all progressive organizations use some one of the methods of "continuous inventory," by which detailed statements of raw materials and finished merchandise on hand, and even of work in process of manufacture, may be obtained at, literally, a moment's notice.

And so it goes through every phase of accounting; for, without exact knowledge of all the factors entering into its operations, no business today can even survive. As a result business organizations spend hundreds of thousands of dollars, and employ hundreds of persons, in their cost-accounting departments alone, simply because the knowledge so gained is indispensable. Indeed, we have it on the word of one accounting authority, that "no part of modern industrial organization is of greater importance."<sup>2</sup>

Now this, merely by way of preamble, may sound a little

<sup>2</sup> D. S. Kimball, *Cost finding* (New York: Alexander Hamilton Institute, 1924), p. 1.

formidable. And so, since we shall endeavor to keep our material as simple as possible, it may clear the ground if, before we attempt to describe what cost accounting is, we try to eliminate some of the things that it is not, and to remove some common misapprehensions of its purpose.

The first of these misapprehensions is that, whatever its rôle may be in business, it is quite inapplicable to library administration. As one library reporting to the American Library Association Survey puts it: "The reason large commercial organizations find it necessary to keep exact accounting systems is that they are generally operated for profit and must have income as well as outlay."<sup>3</sup> But is it true that, because libraries are not operated at a profit, they therefore have no interest in reducing, where possible, their operating costs? As Paul N. Rice well says, speaking of one specific phase of this question of library costs: "The problem of cataloging costs must be attacked by catalogers themselves or it will be attacked by executives less able to judge fairly as to what should be modified or eliminated."<sup>4</sup>

Exactly what is it that cost accounting aims to accomplish? We are told that a satisfactory system of cost accounting assists the management to reduce working costs by pointing out waste and avoidable delay, to choose wisely between alternative methods of operation or production. It is the best possible safeguard against leakages. It stimulates work interest and competitive endeavor. Do these objectives have no appeal to the library executive?

There remains, however, an idea that library work is in some way so different from all other forms of organized human activity that even the basic principles of accounting do not apply to it. Nothing, of course, could be farther from the fact. All organizations which receive and expend money in order to manufacture products, or to distribute products, or to perform services are governed by identical fundamental accounting laws. The fact that some of these organizations may be profit-seeking

<sup>3</sup> American Library Association, *A survey of libraries in the United States*, IV, 137.

<sup>4</sup> "The cost of cataloging," *Library journal*, XXXII (1927), 239.

while others are intentionally philanthropic is quite unimportant; neither type can continue to exist unless it spends less than it receives, and both (theoretically at least) desire to keep such books of account as will accurately reflect the conduct of their operations. Libraries usually do very little manufacturing, but they are clearly engaged in both distribution and service; and they should, and usually do, desire to eliminate waste in the conduct of their operations.

It is true that, because a library's functions are not performed in hope of profit, the forms of its bookkeeping are usually not the same as those used by commercial enterprises; but variance in *forms* does not imply variance in fundamental *principles*. Just as every business has, so every library has, assets and liabilities, operating receipts and expenditures, labor costs and overhead costs, depreciation losses, and an interest on investment burden. It is quite true that it may choose to omit complete record of, or even to ignore entirely in its current books of account, some of these various factors. It may postpone consideration of them. It may confuse them or combine them. But the fact that they may be temporarily ignored, or postponed, or confused, or combined, does not mean that they are permanently escaped: they exist just the same. And, because they are fundamental, sooner or later, whether it wishes to do so or not, whether it knows that it is doing so or not, the library, like every other operating organization, has, in some way, to reckon with them. It is necessary to envisage this particular point unmistakably, for not otherwise can a clear understanding of the viewpoint and terminology of cost accounting be secured. And, to see it, a new orientation toward some of the conventional forms of our library bookkeeping may be prerequisite.

And I say "bookkeeping" rather than "accounting," because the distinction is important. As a rough-and-ready means of keeping track of expenditures, conventional library bookkeeping works, generally speaking, fairly well. But that does not deny that it is, from the standpoint of strict accounting, a sort of rule-of-thumb procedure, that it is incapable of analysis in any broad or deep sense, and incapable of analysis because it



flagrantly violates most of the fundamentals of true accounting. Examine a typical library "statement." What does it show? On one side, "income" from "appropriations," "endowment funds," "gifts," "fines," etc.; on the other side, "expenditure," mainly for "salaries," "books," "binding," and "operating expenses." And if these two sides balance, we are satisfied. But no accountant, endeavoring to ascertain with analytical thoroughness the true financial inwardnesses of the running of a library, would be satisfied for a moment with such figures or with such bookkeeping, because he would see at once that, from the standpoint of accounting, they are confused and defective.

In the first place, in all sound accounting there must be a basic differentiation between "operating accounts" and "capital accounts"; and, faced with the foregoing "statement," the accountant's first question would probably be: "Where's your balance sheet?" And, if you should reply to him that all your library's bookkeeping attempted to do was to present an "operating statement," and that you had no "balance sheet," he would probably pick up your "statement" and point out: (1) that, even as a statement of operations, it was defective because several items of expense, notably rent, depreciation, and interest on investment—and these the largest items of expense incurred by the library—did not appear on it at all; and (2) that, on the other hand, several items that were set down as "expenses"—notably "books," "periodicals," and "binding" (and possibly also the labor of cataloging, classification, etc.)—were really not operating expenses at all but capital investments.

But, in thus giving our imaginary accountant's comment on the conventional forms of library bookkeeping, in suggesting the need—for the purposes of executive analysis—of a "new orientation" toward library accounting, I would not for a moment be thought to be implying a condemnation of the use of this commonly found form of library bookkeeping. Our own library bookkeeping at Wesleyan is substantially of this conventional type. For what it is required to do, for the information we ask of it, it works pretty satisfactorily. All that is sug-

gested here is that for those librarians who may be seriously interested in the technique of cost accounting the procedures followed by conventional library bookkeeping will be found inadequate. For any thoroughgoing, basic study of library finances, any study which attempts to see what lies behind and beneath the more or less fragmentary, incomplete, and superficial figures of our present library financial statements, it is necessary that we take a broader view, an accountant's view, of our accounting.

## II. SOME COMMON FURTHER MISCONCEPTIONS REGARDING COST ACCOUNTING

A second common misconception of library *cost accounting* confuses it with library *statistics*. Now all cost accounting results must, to be of practical usefulness, be comparable, i.e., they must be reduced to a common denominator; and the common denominator chosen is invariably dollars and cents. But, after *total costs* (in dollars and cents) have been obtained, these must, almost always, be analyzed into *unit costs*—i.e., in the case of library work, into cataloging costs *per volume cataloged*, into circulation costs *per volume circulated*, into bindery costs *per volume bound*, etc. It is perfectly obvious, therefore, that to secure unit costs it is necessary to provide the cost accountant with certain basic statistics of the *output* of the library in its various departments. In other words, although we cannot have practicable cost accounting if the library keeps no statistics (any more than we can have cost accounting if the library does no bookkeeping), cost accounting of itself is neither statistics nor bookkeeping; these are simply the tools which it uses, the primary data upon which it is dependent for the making of its own analyses.

Of the immense and invaluable work of statistical definition and correlation which has been carried on over many years by the American Library Association, it is quite unnecessary here to speak other than in praise. The bases of proper library statistics have already been fully defined by the Association's various statistical committees. For this reason such few further

statistics as complete cost accounting would require, and their form, content, and definition, might properly fall into the province of the American Library Association Committee on Cost Accounting which is now functioning.<sup>5</sup>

A third misconception of cost accounting is that suggested by an earlier quotation—that it is such an esoterically complex and inextricably complicated subject that is quite beyond the range of the average librarian's mentality! I would rate librarians higher than that. But it should also be emphasized that in actual practice, in the average business, cost accounting is a matter not of abstruse theory but of very simple clerical routines. And in actual practice, in library work, the routines are more simple yet, because, compared with almost any sort of business, almost any library is far less complex in both its organization and its operation. When the library world has at hand its own body of confirmed cost data, its own standardized code of basic determinations, its own cost accountants experienced in library techniques and so able to step in upon request and instal simple but adequate library cost systems—all of which things the business world has today, but which the library world at present lacks—*then* library cost accounting will be a very simple matter. The real trouble is that we librarians are today where business men were fifty years ago, in the initial—i.e., in the theoretical and analytical—stage of cost accounting. We are more fortunate, however, not only that our determinations will be few and simple but also that we have all the prior cost experience of business to guide us in making them.

One other point—and an important one—library cost accounting will be almost entirely free of one difficulty that has always been one of the chief problems of the business cost accountant, viz., the ignorance, antipathy, and, occasionally, the actual dishonesty of business employees in the keeping of their

<sup>5</sup> At this point it is perhaps desirable to note that cost accounting, by its nature, can never more than approximate absolute accuracy. Bookkeeping books must balance to the cent; cost-accounting records, though in practice they must mesh into the books of account, can never arrive at exact balances. Nevertheless, the fact that cost accounting can never be more than 99 per cent or 99.9 per cent correct by no means denies its usefulness.

cost records. For library staff members are about as intelligent and loyal a class of employees as can well be imagined, and their enthusiastic and interested co-operation in any form of cost accounting undertaken may be taken for granted.<sup>6</sup>

A fourth misconception with regard to library cost accounting, and the one perhaps most commonly held, is that, if introduced, its procedures would be unwarrantably expensive. Five of the eight replies quoted in answer to the American Library Association Survey's questionnaire on cost accounting struck this note:

This library has never gone into exact cost accounting . . . believing that it would be a process too expensive to justify the results. . . . We do not consider the result obtained . . . worth the time and expense required. . . . Following out a cost accounting system in detail would be a large expense. . . . A complete system by which every bill and every expense is analyzed and charged to the proper departments, branches, etc., has never been attempted, as the cost hardly seems worthwhile. . . . The reason why we do not go any further in keeping the cost is that the expense entailed would not be justified.

To this so commonly held misconception of undue cost—for it is a misconception—there is obviously one irrefutable and definitive answer, namely, the determination, in a specific library, of the actual cost of its cost accounting! Being well aware that this very objection to library cost accounting had been raised, I was naturally curious to find out just what it would cost us to operate our own cost system at Wesleyan. (And it is hardly necessary to point out that this is exactly

<sup>6</sup> It should, perhaps, be mentioned at this point that such cost experience as we have procured at Wesleyan, and as is summarized in this paper, has been solely the work of the library. We keep our own books of account, which, must, of course, balance with the general books of account of the University. Our attempts at cost-keeping have, however, been entirely our own venture, for the accuracy of which the treasurer's office of the University naturally assumes no responsibility, and toward which its attitude has been one only of benevolent interest and the most cordial co-operation. Quite recently it began a cost determination of its own relative to the general administration of the college; and in the preparation of this article I was able to check a few of the library's prior determinations with the tentative ones recently made by the University's accountants. In the few cases where direct comparison was possible, we were gratified to find that there was close agreement between us, even though the University's cost setup was made from a different viewpoint and to secure quite different information.

and precisely what a cost system is for—to substitute, for assumptions and impressions, however sincerely arrived at, the actual facts of concrete experience.)

From our own cost records we *know* that it has cost us, over the last three years, an average of \$102.66 a year to operate our cost system (i.e., approximately three-tenths of 1 per cent of our total pay-roll). And this \$102.66 included, besides cost accounting, all work done in the preparation of statistics. As to whether the expenditure of this relatively insignificant amount has justified itself, it can only be said that, by means of otherwise unsuspected information supplied to us by our cost records, we have been able to effect economies in our administrative routines which have already saved us the cost of our cost accounting many times over.

It may be of interest to report in even more detail our experience in installing our cost system, pointing out the fact that we were obliged to develop it *ab initio*. So far as labor costs were concerned—and, as will be later emphasized, labor costs are, from a practical standpoint, nine-tenths of the story—its installation was hardly a formidable undertaking. The two simple forms (Forms A and C), which were all that seemed to us necessary, were first worked out. They were then explained to our staff at a staff meeting, which occupied, with all its questions and discussion, not over fifteen minutes. And ever since then our cost system has been carried on as an extremely minor current routine, with not even a ripple of difficulty. Perhaps our staff is unusually intelligent, but I am inclined to believe that the same, or a similar, system, *for labor costs only*, could be inaugurated in any library with no more difficulty than we had, and could be maintained in any library with proportionately no greater expense.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>7</sup> Our staff members enter records of their time, generally once, at the end of each day; they say that this takes them "a minute or two." Their sheets are collected monthly by my secretary, who is also our library bookkeeper, order clerk, and "statistician." She posts their totals and compiles our final monthly cost record. This posting process takes her about one day each month.

## III. WE ASK SIX QUESTIONS OF OUR COST ACCOUNTING

So far we have been telling what cost accounting is not. The converse question has now become rather insistent: What is it? Of what use is it? What specific questions—of actual practical value in the administration of a library—will it answer? The general reply to this last question is that it will give as much information as to costs as one is willing to pay for (in time and money).

But to be quite specific. Here at Wesleyan we asked our cost system to answer for us six questions—one for each of the six main subdivisions of the technical work of the library staff.<sup>8</sup> What does it cost us, we asked:

1. To "acquire" (order and purchase) a book?
2. To "accession" a book (i.e., to prepare it for the shelves through all its functional processes other than acquisition and cataloging)?
3. To catalog a book (taking, as is understood in all these questions, not a few arbitrarily selected books for a short period, but, over a year, *all* our books of all sorts and of all degrees of difficulty)?
4. To circulate a book?
5. To bind a book in our bindery?
6. To receive, check, and distribute an issue of a periodical?

Now these six questions are easy questions to ask—so easy that it might be thought incredible that, although one or two of them have, in the past, been answered in part, none of them has ever been fully answered, and most of them have never been answered at all.

But would answers to such broad questions, questions phrased in such general terms, have any practical value? Should not each question be further broken down, be made the subject of much more analytical scrutiny, so affording those comparative data which are always most informative? Of course it should be. But "first things first"! When no libra-

<sup>8</sup> We asked it a large number of additional questions regarding labor costs only, but on these six questions we asked for complete costs.

rian has the remotest idea what it costs him to "circulate" an average book, it is obviously our first duty to secure at least that simple basic data. Afterward, we can differentiate and analyze further to our full content—can determine the cost of circulating different classes of books (as, indeed, we have done to some extent), or of circulation to different classes of patrons, or of circulation at different times of the day, week, or year, or with various sorts of equipment, or what you will.

As a matter of fact, as already suggested, even in our own first very rough attempts at cost accounting, it did seem to us worth while to try in a few cases to secure some subdivisational data. In seeking our circulation costs, for example, we segregated reserve circulation from general circulation. In seeking our cataloging costs it seemed to us worth while to segregate filing costs, i.e., to determine just what, on the average, it cost us in labor to file a card in our constantly swelling card catalogs. And, perfectly obviously, we could, in any department we wished, and at a comparatively slight additional expense, have analyzed and refined all our costs much further. Possibly we shall later do so.

#### IV. PREVIOUS WORK DONE IN LIBRARY COST ACCOUNTING

Before plunging into the details of our three years of cost-accounting experience at Wesleyan, it would seem to be pertinent to trace, very briefly, the history of library cost accounting.<sup>9</sup>

The first reference to library cost accounting in all our pro-

<sup>9</sup> And, in passing, it might be added that material for a history of library cost accounting is to be come by only by rather patient delving. In Cannon's *Bibliography of library economy* neither the term "cost accounting" nor, so far as I could find, any synonym of it appears at all, either in the Index or the classification. And there is the same entire lack of entry in the recent supplementary volume to Cannon. A few references to the cost of cataloging appear under the heading "Cataloging"; but, if there are references to cost accounting under any other phase of library work, I missed them. Similarly, in such a book as Drury's otherwise extremely comprehensive guide to the selection and acquisition of books for libraries, although the word "cost" appears in its Index, it is only in reference to the purchase cost of books, not to the cost to the library of carrying on those acquisition operations with which the book concerns itself.



fessional literature appears to have been in the first volume of the *Library journal*, where Mr. Charles Cutter, in reply to an inquiry, estimated "the cost of cataloging" at \$0.50 per volume.<sup>10</sup> Mr. Cutter added: "This, it must be understood, is for books in various languages, of all ages and likely to bring up all the difficult questions. The ordinary cataloging of town libraries need not cost anything like this sum. The actual expense of cataloging one such library was \$0.16 a volume."

In 1886, no less than ten years later, appeared Mr. Whitney's careful "Cost of catalogues,"<sup>11</sup> in which he estimated—but *estimated* still, you will note—the cost of cataloging (by which term it appears that he really meant [as did Mr. Cutter?] the entire cost of preparing a volume for the shelves, including accessioning and ordering) at \$0.3575 per volume.

Although Mr. Whitney's paper aroused considerable discussion when it was presented, apparently no further interest in the subject developed, for another fifteen years passed before Dr. Steiner presented a paper on the cost of preparing library books for public use.<sup>12</sup> This paper showed some technical progress, for it at least pointed out some of the difficulties which would be encountered in the determination of library costs. Apparently, however, to the librarians of that day, the difficulties of acquiring cost information loomed higher than the advantages of having it, for two years later the American Library Association Committee on Library Administration reported that the attempt to arrive at the cost of cataloging had "had to be abandoned" as not "feasible."<sup>13</sup> Other scattered figures upon cataloging cost—and you will note that only cataloging costs are ever mentioned in all these references—which were quoted at various times during this period, ranged from \$0.12. to \$0.60 (i.e., in the money values of today, perhaps \$0.20 to \$1.25) per volume.

<sup>10</sup> *Library journal*, I, 219. To establish true comparisons of *value*, the relative value of money, as of the various dates of this résumé, must of course be kept in mind. In other words, Mr. Cutter's figure of \$0.50 in 1876 might perhaps be the equivalent of \$1.50 today. Catalogers in Mr. Cutter's day may have averaged \$600 a year; today they may average \$1,500 or more.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, X, 214.

<sup>12</sup> *Ibid.*, XXV, 32.

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid.*, XXVII, C/86.

In 1905, Dr. Bishop, then at Princeton, contributed a noteworthy paper, "Some considerations of the cost of cataloging,"<sup>14</sup> which, for the first time, offered the beginning of a firm basis for procedure. He suggested, for instance, that there were elements of cost other than labor involved, and clearly pointed out by way of introduction:

The items which must be included in reckoning the actual cost of cataloging are numerous and diverse. Salaries vary, and must vary; heating and lighting present differing costs in different regions and buildings; thoroughness and extent of the actual work will differ with different systems; and so on through a long list of smaller and larger items. . . . These elements of the actual cost of cataloging must of necessity vary with the individual libraries. . . . When one library calculates its cost at 50¢ per title, another at 60, another at 20, another at 13, and so on, it is evident that until practical unanimity has been reached on the question of what must be reckoned as parts of the cataloging process and expense, it is well-nigh useless to compare figures.

Dr. Bishop's paper made no effort to secure any actual ascertainties of cost, although it did publish certain valuable cataloging statistics, and these latter not for a week or a month, but for fifteen months—long enough, that is, to establish really dependable averages. Even more important, he analyzed into their elements the statistical factors involved and showed clearly, as he implied in the foregoing quotation, the necessity of securing agreed definitions of terms and agreed delimitations of functional processes if comparison of results was to have any value.

Unfortunately, Dr. Bishop's clearly presented desiderata were largely ignored in what was to be the next landmark in library cost-accounting history, viz., the so-called A.L.A. "Cataloging Test" of 1913-16. Perhaps they had been forgotten, for it will be noted that another long period, no less than eight years, elapsed between Dr. Bishop's Princeton paper and this next recrudescence of professional interest in the subject. The A.L.A. "Test" was a co-operative effort, the co-ordinated answers to a questionnaire to which thirty-eight libraries replied. If it proved to be a failure—and it was generally felt at the time

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, XXX, 10.

that it was a failure—this “Test” was one because of its disregard of what Dr. Bishop had previously pointed out to be essential. The experience recorded in the “Test” was in each case too limited to establish anything like a norm even for the library reporting, while, as between libraries, comparisons were valueless because there had been no prior agreement upon standards or terminology.

Each library had been asked to report the “cost” of “cataloging” “100 books” “selected at random.” What were the results? Mr. Josephson thus summarized them, in a report presented at the Asbury Park Meeting in 1916:

(1) Three large libraries, each of which represents a type of its own, none of them easily compared with the other two. These libraries cataloged for the test a total of 302 books in 293 hours and 23 minutes at a total cost of \$193.83, giving an average of 56 minutes in point of time and an average cost of 64½ cents.

(2) Four university libraries which cataloged together 402 books in 139 hours and 16 minutes at a cost of \$64.20, giving an average of 20½ minutes in point of time and an average cost of 16 cents.

(3) Seven large public libraries with branch systems, reporting together 684 books cataloged in 399 hours at a total cost of \$172.52, giving an average of 35 minutes in point of time and an average cost of 25½ cents.

(4) Four smaller libraries, namely, three public libraries and one state library, reporting together 326 books cataloged in 73 hours and 31 minutes at a total cost of \$36.14, giving an average of 13½ minutes in point of time and an average cost of 10½ cents.<sup>15</sup>

The foregoing record of “costs” becomes even more confusing when we learn that Yale reported a “cataloging cost” of \$0.1733 a volume, and Columbia, the incredible one of \$0.095!<sup>16</sup> Miss Prescott, commenting upon the “Test,” said,

As a matter of fact, these varying results seem to me to point out very plainly that any cataloging test must necessarily fail to give us definite practical figures, because of the varying nature of libraries, and the multitudinous varying details which must be considered. The cost of cataloging depends very much on the available funds. We can make a very simple author card if

<sup>15</sup> *Ibid.*, XLI, 654.

<sup>16</sup> “The A. L. A. cataloging test at Yale and Columbia,” *Library Journal*, XLII, 110. See also Hanson, “Cataloging test in the University of Chicago Library,” *ibid.*, XL, 399.

we must; we can fill it with valuable bibliographical information and multiply subject cards if funds permit.

A cataloging test, therefore, which has as its aim to give the average cost of cataloging per title in any library, or in any number of libraries, cannot but fail in its mission. . . .

And Mr. Josephson similarly commented:

Another factor that naturally influences the cost of the work is that of salaries. In this respect the five libraries stand as follows: No. X has a cataloging force of 24 persons, with an average salary of \$906. No. XI has a force of 20, with an average salary of \$581. No. XII had, in 1912, a force of 16 with an average salary of \$985. The staff of this library has since been increased, but I have no report of any increase in salaries. No. XIV has a force of 12, with an average salary of \$505. No. XV has a force of 19, with an average salary of \$502. [Remember these are pre-war salaries.]

There are other factors that will influence the time consumed in cataloging and thereby the cost of the work: matters of organization, of local conditions, and the experience and alertness of the workers, the absence of which naturally result in waste of time.

It is rather obvious, as one analyzes the accounts of this "Test" and the comment upon it, that what it was seeking was really an empirical figure, a something that those in charge of the "Test" termed "the cost of cataloging." True cost accounting is entirely specific, entirely objective. What it seeks to ascertain is, not "the cost of cataloging" in general, but the definite cost of cataloging certain specific books in some one specific library under certain specific conditions. The books, the cataloging salaries, the working conditions, and the cataloging standards in that library may, or may not, be the same as those in some other library. The cost figures gained in the two libraries may or may not, therefore, be comparable. Unless all these factors are closely correlated, comparison is impossible, for wide variations in "cost" are certain, and any "average" of the two sets of costs is, so far as its practical usefulness goes, a mere statistical abstraction. But, if all the contributing factors in the two libraries reporting *are* closely alike, and there is still a wide variation in their individual costs, then administrative interest is properly aroused and cost comparisons may be, to both libraries, extremely helpful.

Of course, it is quite true that, having first secured accurate cost figures from a *great many libraries*, for a *large number of books*, over *long periods of time*, it is possible, by combining them, to secure an *average cataloging cost* for all libraries. But such an average as this represents a secondary and incidental cost figure, not a primary one; and, generally speaking, it would not be a very useful one. The important thing to remember is that real costs are not averages, that they can be determined for but one institution at a time, and that they mean nothing whatever to another institution except as the conditioning factors in both are known and due allowance for them is made.

Miss Mann, in her *Introduction to cataloging and the classification of books*,<sup>17</sup> comes to this same conclusion in these words:

Few definite results have come from the attempts to estimate the cost of cataloging a single book. . . . Few libraries have yet grappled with the cost accounting problem; therefore, the cost of departmental work has not received separate scientific consideration. With the growing use of Library of Congress cards and the greater uniformity in methods resulting from them, it may soon be possible to arrive at more definite figures. When this is done, a combination survey might be made by librarians and expert cost accountants. About all that is known is the fact that the cost of cataloging increases with the size and character of the book collection. . . . Catalogers cannot afford to overlook the economic side of classification and cataloging. It is an expensive business at every turn. Efficiency methods of management, leading to standardization where it is feasible, will reduce costs without interfering with the scholarly side of the work.

Although catalogers other than Miss Mann have been inclined more and more to feel that they "could not afford to overlook the economic side of . . . cataloging," it was not until as recently as 1930 that there appeared anything approaching a consistent attempt at genuine cost analysis—even though still on the labor side alone—of the whole range of a library's functions. This was the extremely interesting and valuable pioneer venture of the library of the University of California. The report of this project, recorded in a paper read before the College and Reference Section of the American Library Association at Los Angeles in the same year, covered, it is true, only a six months'

<sup>17</sup> P. 345.

period; but six months is long enough to obtain an accurate cross-sectional result; and the technique followed, so far as one may gather from the report, was, from the standpoint of accounting, correct.

Miss Hand opened her report on this project by commenting: "In library practice, if there is one thing that seems to be less clear and more productive of misunderstanding than another, it is the question of costs." And she argued a little later most cogently:

Administrative officers and governing bodies have a right to know how, and how efficiently, libraries are spending the funds granted them. Librarians themselves can learn much from comparisons that really compare. . . . The librarian who cannot produce the facts readily and in a form comprehensible to persons unfamiliar with the mechanics of library work may find himself responsible for a situation inimical to the institution under his care.

The latest—and in some respects a very useful—analysis of cataloging costs is that by Miss Buelow of the La Crosse, Wisconsin, Public Library.<sup>18</sup> She goes a step farther toward complete cost accounting by including, for the first time, a careful account of cataloging supplies as well as labor. She properly remarks that "the cost of cataloging depends on the individual book, and the routine of each library." But, for a medium-sized public library, using chiefly Library of Congress cards, not concerned with books of unusual difficulty, and, as in all these quoted cost figures, attempting no computation of overhead costs, Miss Buelow's article deserves careful reading.

#### V. THE WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

Because, as we have just pointed out, cost figures mean little unless they are accompanied by a statement of the conditioning factors responsible for them, such of the more essential facts regarding our library here at Wesleyan as have a direct bearing on our operating costs should be put in the record at this point.

Briefly, the Wesleyan University Library is one hundred and five years old. It has something over 200,000 accessioned and cataloged volumes, with an "arrears" stock of some 60,000

<sup>18</sup> *Library journal*, LX, 657.

volumes more in process of checking for duplication and either incorporation or disposal. It is relatively strong in bound periodical literature of the scholarly type. Over half of its cataloging is of foreign-language items—not including, however, any oriental languages. For approximately 60 per cent of its accessions it is able to secure Library of Congress cards. For a large part of the rest it prints its own cards—and, it need hardly be pointed out, the printing of catalog cards involves more than average cataloging expense. As to its standards of cataloging: it endeavors to follow Library of Congress practice pretty closely. So much for our cataloging and accessioning.

Our building is eight years old, unusually attractive architecturally, and, in nearly all respects, admirably adapted to its function. Our undergraduate college body is small—limited to six hundred; our graduate student body and faculty are, however, perhaps relatively large, and we afford more research facilities, and probably do more reference work, than the size of our student body would indicate.

Our full-time library staff comprises fourteen persons, all college graduates but two, and all library school trained but four. Seven of the staff are in the cataloging department. We operate our own bindery, the personnel of which is not included in the foregoing count. Nor does it include either our janitorial staff or our part-time student assistants, of whom last year we had thirty-two. We are open through the college year from 8:00 A.M. to 11:00 P.M. We give desk service at two points of control; in the main lobby and in the main reading-room. We do not have a separate reserve reading-room. We take a complete inventory every summer. Seven departmental collections, totaling some 15,000 volumes, not housed in the main library building, are, however, under its jurisdiction. Our salaries range above the average for a college of our size, our catalogers, for example, receiving from \$1,700 to \$2,100.

#### VI. THE BASIC TECHNIQUE OF COST ACCOUNTING

Accountants have discovered that all elements of operating cost fall into three main classes: labor, raw materials, and over-



head. The relative importance of these three classes of items varies with every business. In some, such as printing, labor is by far the largest item of expense; in textile manufacturing, on the other hand, raw material cost comes first; while in hydroelectric plants, overhead is overwhelmingly important. In the average university library it would appear that the largest expense is usually overhead, and the next largest labor, with raw material costs practically non-existent.

To know the relative weight of these elements of cost they must, of course, be in some way measured: labor in units of time, raw materials by count as used, overhead by more or less complex computations. Having been measured, they must be reduced to a common denominator—dollars and cents. And finally, when the total operating costs, in money, have, for any given period, been computed, they must, to make them of practicable usefulness for comparative purposes, be further split up, or allocated, either to various departmentalized classes of work done or to individual units of output. This, in outline, is the whole procedure of cost accounting.<sup>19</sup>

From the standpoint of cost accounting all operating organizations divide themselves into two classes: "continuous-process" (or "continuous-operation") organizations and "intermittent-process" (or "production-order" or "individual-job") organizations. A flour mill is a good example of the first class of organization; a printing plant, of the second. In a business of the flour-mill type, cost accounting is more simple than it is in an organization of the printing-plant type, for one's object is merely to know the cost of production by departments or processes, costs *per unit of output* being thereafter easily determined by simple division. In a printing plant, on the other hand, or in any other organization which handles a multiplicity of separate "jobs," each one of which is *individually priced*, it is extremely desirable that the unit cost be determined for each individual job. This type of organization obviously presents a much more complex accounting problem.

<sup>19</sup> For a somewhat similar but fuller analysis see *Costs and statistics* (Chicago: A. W. Shaw Co., 1914).

So far as a library is concerned, its circulation department is clearly a continuous-process operation, for the labor of charging various books is essentially identical. Cataloging, on the other hand, might be treated either as a continuous process or as a succession of individual jobs, some of which are easy, some extremely complicated and time-consuming. So far as cost routine is concerned, it would be, in other words, quite possible, if it were considered worth while, to find the cost of cataloging each separate individual book, i.e., to treat each book as a separate "job." But, although it could be done, it would almost surely not be worth while to do it, for the library's cataloging "jobs" are not individually "sold" but are, instead, lumped into a common departmentalized expense. Also they are, in the course of a year, so numerous that over such an extended period any averages obtained tend closely to approach genuine averages. In other words, if we can ascertain with reasonable exactitude the cost *in a given library* of cataloging *all* its books (and from this obtain a unit cost *for this library* per average book), we have all the information that, as a practical matter, we need.

Before going further it is also desirable to explain briefly the distinction made in cost accounting between "productive" and "non-productive" functions. In every business certain operations ultimately produce, or co-operate in producing, *marketable units of output* of some sort—it may be rolls of paper, or flannel shirts, or kilowatts of electricity, or cans of olive oil. Other operations—such, for example, as those of executive administration, of the auditing staff, the clerical staff, the sales force, the plant-maintenance staff, etc.—although they are all essential to the efficient operation of the organization as a whole, of themselves produce nothing which brings into the business a direct income. Since it is the aim of all business cost accounting to ascertain the true total cost of producing the concern's marketable units of product, it is obvious that each unit of sold product must carry, not only its correct share of "direct" labor costs, but also its due proportion of administrative and secretarial labor, etc., and, besides labor, its due portion of such charges as rent, insurance,

taxes, and all the other items which make up what the accountant terms "general overhead."<sup>20</sup>

Exactly this same differentiation must be applied in library cost accounting. True, the library does not *sell* its services; but it does produce certain consumable units of output—i.e., it catalogs, binds, accessions, etc., so many books, it files so many cards, it provides reading and reference services to so many readers. All of these units of library output are more or less accurately measurable. On the cost of "producing" them hangs, to a very large degree, the efficient administration of the library. And, just as the commercial business, to get a true measure of its operating efficiency, is obliged to allocate its administrative and other overhead labor costs, and its rent and other general overhead costs, over its various respective units of output, so the library, if it is sincerely desirous of getting a just measure of its operative efficiency, must allocate its "non-productive overhead" over its various outputs.

How? Upon what basis?<sup>21</sup> Within the limits of this paper detailed discussion of the various methods of overhead allocation is impossible. It is also unnecessary, for most of the technical literature upon this point is inapplicable to library practice.

<sup>20</sup> In commercial practice there is a still further complication of cost accounting which is not met with in library practice, or met with in such slight degree that it may safely be ignored, and that is the obligation of separating the time of even "productive" employees between chargeable and non-chargeable operations. For instance, in printing cost keeping, the "distribution" labor of a hand compositor, the "wash-up" time of a cylinder pressman, the "space-hand cleaning" time of a linotype operator must all be accounted for as non-productive time, to be allocated as general "departmental labor overhead," in addition to general plant labor overhead, and this even though compositors, pressmen, and linotype operators are themselves "productive" employees.

<sup>21</sup> Cost accounting recognizes a dozen or more different methods, or combinations of methods, of allocating each sort of overhead cost, each of which is found to give more accurate results when applied to certain specific conditions. There exists, indeed, an extensive literature on this one phase of cost accounting. Whether the "man-rate method," the "man-hour method," the "machine-hour method," etc., or some combination of these, or some still other method of overhead allocation is to be chosen for the cost accounting of a given business depends on its character, on the nature of its products, the exact sort of cost information being sought, etc. The intent of the accounting expert is, of course, to choose that method which will give the most accurate approximation to the true facts; but, in making a choice of methods, cost experts themselves will not always agree.

As a matter of fact, in our Wesleyan cost accounting very few questions regarding overhead allocation arose at all, and what few did come up involved relatively inconsequential amounts. All the larger items of overhead so readily earmarked themselves as to make their functional allocation no problem.

Now it may be argued—and perhaps at this point should be argued—that, even granted that the librarian is interested in cost accounting, he should attempt to go no farther than what has been attempted in the past, i.e., no farther than the first stage of cost accounting, the determination of direct labor costs. And the reason, or the chief reason, we are told, why he should go no farther is that, in the majority of cases, labor costs are the only ones in his library over which he has any control.

But let us examine this latter contention by giving a somewhat more careful consideration to some one single item of overhead—rent, for example. Rent is generally not under the control of the librarian. Let us suppose that he is fortunate enough to come to such a building as we have here at Wesleyan, generous in its spaciousness, sumptuous in its appointments, appealing in its gracious dignity. It is perfectly clear that such a building as this is going to show a computed annual rental overhead several times greater per cubic foot than some other less expensive college library building. Are we then to condemn our Olin Memorial Library building at Wesleyan as being inefficient *per se*? To ask the question is, of course, to answer it. Library "efficiency" is obviously not solely a matter of dollars and cents. Rental costs per cubic foot are obviously not the sole, or even the main, measure of the worth of a library building to its clientele.

But, if this is true—and of course it *is* true—if overhead costs are so highly individual to each specific library, do we not come back, it may be asked, to our original question: Why bother about them at all? Why concern ourselves with rental costs, or with other overhead costs, in our library accounting? What is the use of all our computations if all that we learn at the end is that a beautiful, spacious, and expensively designed building costs three times as much to maintain as a plain and cheap one?

The answer is that, if our accounting has been done at all carefully, and—far more important—if the cost results obtained are used at all intelligently, they are going to reveal to us far more than a bare statement of rental cost per cubic foot. Such a bald comparison as cubic-foot cost “leaps to the eye,” as the French say. But there are other comparisons, to be developed by a careful study of sound unit-cost results, which are by no means so self-evident. Suppose, for the purposes of our argument, that we have placed before us complete and carefully computed cost data for libraries which are of substantially equal size and offer substantially equal facilities. Let us suppose, also, that both libraries are equally well built, equally attractive architecturally, and give equal impression of charm and spaciousness.

But suppose that our cost analysis of the operation of the two buildings develops a hitherto almost unsuspected and rather disconcerting set of facts, namely, that instead of the two libraries costing about the same to operate, as would have been anticipated, one building is costing many thousands of dollars a year more to operate than the other. And then suppose that, once this fact has arisen, like Banquo’s ghost, to stare librarian and trustees in the face, a careful, detailed step-by-step study of the cost analyses of the rental of the two buildings is made, with this result: it is discovered that the more efficient of these two libraries carefully correlates space and space requirements, while the other, with the same total area, is wasteful of space where space is unnecessary, and cramped for space where space is needed; that the corridors and stairways of the first library are carefully co-ordinated to the natural flow of traffic, while the other is so designed as to make extra steps for all who use its facilities; that an entirely unnecessary duplication of control points imposes on the second library an added salary burden equivalent to the time of two or three extra staff members; that in the first building work-room layout and work routine are systematically integrated, while in the other they are not; etc.

Now, granted all this discovery, it may be still parried by our critics of cost accounting: “Well, what even of *that*? Granted

that your cost accounting has shown you that one building is relatively inefficient, and even where and why it is inefficient, isn't the damage done? What is the good of knowing even why and where your building is bad if it's too late to do anything about it?"

But is it too late?—that's the practical question. Certainly it isn't too late to prevent some other library making exactly the same mistakes in design all over again, and this is something which has frequently happened in the past. Isn't it true that no library lives for itself alone; that every library building has its lessons for the whole profession, either as a model to be imitated or as a warning to be heeded?

But the value of the cost accounting of building rental does not stop with its lessons to the library world at large. It is very possible that the relatively inefficient building under discussion can be helped even for its own users. Once cost accounting has shown us where the maintenance leaks are, it may be that some of them may be stopped up at comparatively moderate cost. Once a building is built, it is, of course, impossible to play checkers with its rooms; but it is quite possible to attain the same result indirectly by reallocating the functions of these same rooms. By so slight a change as closing doors here and opening others there, it may be possible to reduce unnecessary multiplicity of control points and release staff members for really constructive work. If waste space exists, ways may be found to utilize it, once analysis emphasizes, by comparison with another library, the fact that it is waste space. And so we might go on. It is never true that librarians have no control whatever over their rental and other overhead costs; never true that overhead cost accounting is entirely without value to them.

#### VII. THE ASCERTAINMENT OF DIRECT LABOR COSTS IS REALLY A SIMPLE MATTER

Unless employees are working on a piecework basis—which is very seldom the case in library practice—labor cost must first be measured in units of time, then translated into dollars

and cents. In practice there are many methods of measuring labor time. In our own cost systems we used the commonest and simplest, i.e., to have each member of the staff account for her own time. And, for this purpose, we developed the single-sided form reproduced as Form A.

In commercial practice, especially in individual-job industries, it is necessary to post up (i.e., allocate) the time of every employee daily; and in complex industries (such as printing), where the employee is often under a continuous and rapid change all day from one job to another, each employee's time is usually accounted for in comparatively short intervals (six-minute periods are common). In library work, consisting, as it does, of continuous processes, much more simple methods of time accounting are practicable. Form A accounts for the time of each member of the staff in fifteen-minute, instead of six-minute, intervals, and is so constructed that, instead of necessitating daily time sheets and daily posting, one sheet lasts an employee a whole month.

What do we mean by saying that each employee must "account for her time"? We mean that each must record on her sheet what she does during every fifteen-minute period of her working day, and account according to a definite functional analysis of all the library's work which has been developed and is printed in summary form on her time sheet. Note the phrase "during every fifteen-minute period of her working day." This may seem quite obvious; nevertheless, it avoids one of the commonest errors found in unit-cost keeping. It is the purpose of cost accounting, it is true, to find out the collective time which the staff gives to certain specific library functions—cataloging, for example. But it has been found by long experience that the only practicable way in which the collective time of any one or two functions can be segregated is to have employees segregate all their time for all functions. To attempt to find only the time spent on cataloging simply does not procure a correct result. It might, but cost experience has proved conclusively that it doesn't. And the reason is that unless all time is definitely re-



Name R. H. M. MONTHLY INDIVIDUAL COST SUMMARY SHEET  
Month Nov. 1935

# FORM A

corded as having been devoted to some activity, a lot of time is never accounted for at all. This point is an extremely practical and a very important one, for, as one cost authority puts it:

Labor means not only the labor actually directly spent on the job or process, but a pro rata allocation to the job or process of all labor indirectly spent. . . . In any proper cost system everything that has been paid out must be charged up somewhere as a part of costs, otherwise the cost figures obtained are illusory and worse than valueless.

Although Form A, which is the heart of our whole cost keeping system at Wesleyan, would seem to be self-explanatory, a few comments upon it may be in order. As with nearly all cost systems, it was found convenient to use decimals for the fractions of the hour and abbreviated symbols to denote processes.<sup>22</sup>

Form B is the same form as that used by individual staff members in the form in which it is used again by our cost clerk to tabulate the total cost in dollars and cents of the time spent during the month by all members of the staff. On each line of this version of the form is copied the monthly "total" at the bottom of the individual cost sheet of each staff member.

Finally, Form C copies the total costs for the month, divided by functions, as they are added at the bottom of Form B; lists in the center the month's units of output per function (derived from the month's statistics); and so, by division, secures and lists on the right side a monthly statement of labor costs per respective units of output. Form C is the one our cost clerk places on my desk each month as the picture of the preceding month's labor costs. It is the form I most use in my own analyses.

Form D is a summary for the entire year, on one sheet, of all direct labor costs for the entire year, fully functionalized. It is of course, simply a copy of the first columns of the monthly Form C sheets.

And that, so far as our direct-labor cost accounting is con-

<sup>22</sup> And, so far as was practicable without unnecessary distortions, to make these symbols more or less mnemonic. Thus we have *C*=cataloging and *S*=secretarial work; *Cl*=classifying and *St*=typing. But such mnemonics are in no sense an essential part of a cost-keeping system and become silly if carried to extremes.

1925 Nov 15

FORM B

## FORM C

## OLIN MEMORIAL LIBRARY

## COST SUMMARIES (LABOR COST ONLY) FOR THE MONTH OF NOVEMBER, 1935

	Cost	No. of Units	Cost per Unit
<b>Ordering:</b>			
<i>Ob</i> Bibliographical checking .....	\$ 12.62		
<i>Oo</i> Ordering .....	35.97		
<i>Or</i> Checking bills and books received .....	13.00		
Total order department .....	\$ 60.69	175	\$0.3468
<b>Accessioning:</b>			
<i>Aa</i> Accession numbers .....	\$ 13.78		
<i>Ac</i> Cutting pages .....			
<i>Al</i> Lettering call numbers .....	15.10		
<i>Ap</i> Plating and pocketing .....	9.65		
<i>As</i> "Processing" .....	45.25		
Total accessions department .....	\$ 83.78	1,382	0.0606
<b>Reference:</b>			
<i>Ri</i> Interlibrary loan .....	\$ 10.01	9	1.1122
<i>Ry</i> General reference work .....	152.08		
Total reference work .....	\$162.09		
<b>Cataloging and classification:</b>			
<i>Ca</i> Cataloging (own cards) .....	\$163.60		
<i>Ct</i> Cataloging (L.C. cards) .....	217.97		
<i>Cl</i> Classifying .....	116.41		
<i>Cm</i> Miscellaneous catalog work .....	104.59		
<i>Cr</i> Revising .....	71.77		
Total cataloging department .....	\$674.34	1,136	0.5936
<b>Filing:</b>			
<i>Fd</i> Depository catalog filing .....	\$141.74		
<i>Fg</i> Government documents catalog filing .....			
<i>Fm</i> Main catalog filing .....	21.24	3,091	0.0092
<i>Fs</i> Shelf-list filing .....	7.20		
Total filing department .....	\$120.18		
<b>Periodicals:</b>			
<i>Pc</i> Checking receipts .....	\$ 78.57		
<i>Pe</i> Missing-number work .....	7.59		
Total periodical department .....	\$ 86.16	1,383	0.0622

## FORM C—Continued

	Cost	No. of Units	Cost per Unit
<b>Binding:</b>			
<i>B<sub>o</sub></i> Preparing for binding.....	\$ 63.63	705	0.0902
<i>B<sub>i</sub></i> Binding.....	342.86	700	0.4898
<i>B<sub>r</sub></i> Repairing.....	38.00	5	7.60*
Total binding department.....	\$444.49		
<b>Circulation:</b>			
<i>L<sub>d</sub></i> Circulation desk work.....	\$406.15	2,866	0.1417
<i>L<sub>f</sub></i> Fines, overdue, etc.....	8.00		
<i>L<sub>r</sub></i> Reserve desk work.....	161.21	3,035	0.0531
<i>L<sub>s</sub></i> Stack work.....	49.05		
Total circulation department.....	\$624.41		
<b>Secretarial work:</b>			
<i>S<sub>c</sub></i> Correspondence.....	\$ 25.66		
<i>S<sub>k</sub></i> Bookkeeping.....	25.68		
<i>S<sub>m</sub></i> Mail sorting and delivery.....	24.48		
<i>S<sub>s</sub></i> Statistics, cost accounting.....	8.86		
<i>S<sub>t</sub></i> Typing.....	118.98		
Total secretarial work.....	\$203.66		
<b>Publicity:</b>			
<i>E<sub>a</sub></i> Printed publicity, <i>About books</i> .....	\$ 5.69		
<i>E<sub>n</sub></i> Entertaining, library functions.....	2.12		
<i>E<sub>x</sub></i> Library exhibits, bulletin boards.....	7.65		
Total publicity work.....	\$ 15.46		
<b>Miscellaneous:</b>			
<i>M<sub>c</sub></i> Special collection work.....			
<i>M<sub>d</sub></i> Duplicates, checking and disposal.....			
<i>M<sub>s</sub></i> Staff meetings.....	\$ 2.94		
<i>M<sub>v</sub></i> Inventory.....	.47		
Total miscellaneous work.....	\$ 3.41		

\* This figure looks out of line. It was due to the fact that nearly all the expense in this item for this month was upon the careful repairing of one of our incunabula.

# FORM D

## OLIN MEMORIAL LIBRARY

### COST SUMMARIES (LABOR COST ONLY) FOR THE YEAR 1934-'35

	July	August	September	October	November	December	January	February	March	April	May	June	Total
<b>Ordering:</b>													
<i>On</i> Bibliographical checking.....	\$ 15.58	\$ 11.69	\$ 8.98	\$ 25.12	\$ 25.56	\$ 12.30	\$ 11.12	\$ 10.66	\$ 7.38	\$ 13.28	\$ 12.30	\$ 21.60	\$ 177.52
<i>On</i> Cataloging.....	24.41	18.71	15.28	16.00	13.45	10.24	11.50	6.85	16.04	8.76	13.65	11.38	\$ 177.39
<i>On</i> Checking bills and books received.....	18.81	3.28	16.54	16.00	13.45	10.24	11.50	6.85	6.83	8.76	13.65	11.38	177.39
Total order department.....	\$ 58.42	\$ 33.68	\$ 41.25	\$ 62.82	\$ 63.17	\$ 54.00	\$ 53.12	\$ 31.69	\$ 30.90	\$ 41.27	\$ 62.13	\$ 60.24	\$ 592.69
<b>Accessioning:</b>													
<i>As</i> Accession numbers.....	\$ 59.55	\$ 7.20	\$ 7.72	\$ 13.02	\$ 9.73	\$ 11.08	\$ 6.73	\$ 4.18	\$ 4.16	\$ 7.91	\$ 5.97	\$ 5.60	\$ 112.85
<i>As</i> Cutting pages.....	10.83	3.00	16.40	1.00	1.04	0.25	2.95	16.20	0.93	10.60	1.60	0.00	22.00
<i>As</i> Labeling.....	28.61	10.20	10.35	4.15	7.51	0.61	0.82	3.23	2.63	7.25	6.43	3.10	116.06
<i>As</i> Plating and pocketing.....	24.18	0.93	17.89	66.02	44.67	46.14	61.55	73.10	84.00	54.49	39.77	47.10	558.84
Total accessions department.....	\$ 117.10	\$ 34.13	\$ 53.16	\$ 121.19	\$ 83.55	\$ 88.88	\$ 98.75	\$ 104.71	\$ 120.82	\$ 90.25	\$ 71.77	\$ 84.30	\$ 1,068.51
<b>Reference:</b>													
<i>At</i> Interlibrary loan.....	\$ 2.33	\$ 1.96	\$ 5.71	\$ 16.30	\$ 25.27	\$ 9.08	\$ 9.78	\$ 8.97	\$ 11.41	\$ 9.78	\$ 16.30	\$ 11.41	\$ 128.30
<i>At</i> General reference work.....	65.42	2.28	130.70	139.49	121.23	128.95	132.90	142.28	132.94	227.20	144.39	134.47	1,402.25
Total reference work.....	\$ 67.75	\$ 4.24	\$ 136.41	\$ 155.79	\$ 146.50	\$ 138.03	\$ 142.68	\$ 151.25	\$ 144.35	\$ 136.98	\$ 160.69	\$ 145.88	\$ 1,530.55
<b>Cataloging and classification:</b>													
<i>Ca</i> Cataloging (own cards).....	\$ 145.10	\$ 122.14	\$ 128.88	\$ 238.58	\$ 162.20	\$ 97.75	\$ 186.00	\$ 223.53	\$ 174.50	\$ 166.23	\$ 226.60	\$ 248.54	\$ 2,330.11
<i>Ca</i> Cataloging (L.C. cards).....	75.22	54.58	218.88	339.61	337.08	262.64	292.75	210.76	318.79	270.15	241.94	191.60	2,714.00
<i>Cl</i> Classifying.....	37.63	42.01	110.63	160.02	133.34	104.72	140.87	115.51	72.87	55.58	92.80	91.08	1,157.06
<i>Cs</i> Miscellaneous catalog work.....	22.12	58.44	78.18	69.57	59.60	110.50	100.95	53.24	77.53	19.43	108.96	14.99	931.10
<i>Cs</i> Revising.....	30.91	3.40	76.11	67.79	105.30	167.09	100.30	69.29	77.73	118.90	113.75	80.11	931.10
Total cataloging department.....	\$ 310.14	\$ 280.37	\$ 507.68	\$ 792.57	\$ 797.78	\$ 662.70	\$ 810.77	\$ 672.33	\$ 741.42	\$ 690.28	\$ 792.05	\$ 666.12	\$ 8,054.41
<b>Filing:</b>													
<i>Fd</i> Depository catalog filing.....	\$ 47.90	\$ 0.40	\$ 4.19	\$ 147.59	\$ 116.29	\$ 113.79	\$ 124.14	\$ 135.00	\$ 94.19	\$ 94.72	\$ 97.90	\$ 101.05	\$ 1,074.23
<i>Fg</i> Government documents catalog filing.....	0.90	.....	.....	4.40	.....	1.20	3.90	5.40	.....	.....	.....	.....	1.20
<i>Fm</i> Miscellaneous catalog filing.....	19.23	2.93	33.98	28.45	41.91	18.51	21.70	19.64	30.84	23.27	27.84	33.69	312.25
<i>Fs</i> Shelf-list filing.....	7.71	6.30	10.43	9.00	22.45	8.40	10.50	4.20	17.80	2.70	8.40	5.40	114.29
Total filing department.....	\$ 75.74	\$ 9.63	\$ 48.60	\$ 189.44	\$ 180.65	\$ 151.90	\$ 160.60	\$ 161.24	\$ 142.81	\$ 120.69	\$ 134.23	\$ 141.52	\$ 1,516.77

FORM D—Continued

	July	August	September	October	November	December	January	February	March	April	May	June	Total
<b>Periodicals:</b>													
<i>Pc</i> Checking receipts.....	\$ 63.32	\$ 26.70	\$ 75.00	\$ 75.88	\$ 64.32	\$ 57.14	\$ 74.26	\$ 70.80	\$ 78.43	\$ 68.65	\$ 83.12	\$ 113.17	\$ 850.07
<i>Pp</i> Missing-number work.....	1.56	7.59	18.11	16.17	17.13	10.78	7.84	5.88	8.82	4.41	6.61	101.30	
Total periodical department.....	\$ 63.32	\$ 28.66	\$ 82.69	\$ 93.99	\$ 80.49	\$ 70.27	\$ 82.04	\$ 78.73	\$ 84.31	\$ 77.47	\$ 87.53	\$ 119.78	\$ 952.27
<b>Binding:</b>													
<i>Bp</i> Preparing for binding.....	\$ 43.63	\$ 31.65	\$ 80.33	\$ 110.45	\$ 101.27	\$ 94.88	\$ 113.53	\$ 94.23	\$ 71.12	\$ 70.16	\$ 80.07	\$ 68.80	\$ 972.08
<i>Bb</i> Binding.....	\$ 88.55	\$ 125.51	\$ 138.69	\$ 211.88	\$ 193.66	\$ 217.61	\$ 153.23	\$ 231.86	\$ 186.81	\$ 183.85	\$ 177.45	\$ 158.63	\$ 2,094.06
<i>Br</i> Repairing.....	31.12	43.70	45.01	43.11	73.13	6.79	99.38	5.00	27.00	58.48	32.67	30.00	\$ 475.62
Total binding department.....	\$ 153.31	\$ 229.88	\$ 254.03	\$ 335.24	\$ 367.06	\$ 319.28	\$ 365.56	\$ 323.08	\$ 386.93	\$ 321.49	\$ 290.10	\$ 247.51	\$ 3,543.56
<b>Circulation:</b>													
<i>Ld</i> Circulation desk work.....	\$ 209.43	\$ 131.73	\$ 346.44	\$ 466.84	\$ 417.51	\$ 373.00	\$ 424.13	\$ 424.74	\$ 459.65	\$ 401.29	\$ 457.95	\$ 355.08	\$ 4,465.74
<i>Lr</i> Runs, overruns, etc.....	7.61	10.10	19.15	0.45	151.88	110.04	155.50	148.71	4.80	118.60	6.11	68.40	\$ 1,351.88
<i>Lp</i> Reading room work.....	241.58	206.30	107.40	131.63	111.74	113.82	113.80	120.21	141.12	135.29	93.20	110.85	\$ 1,638.97
<i>Lr</i> Stock work.....	\$ 458.87	\$ 338.13	\$ 513.19	\$ 762.74	\$ 685.99	\$ 597.79	\$ 693.32	\$ 693.69	\$ 782.82	\$ 665.25	\$ 732.20	\$ 545.20	\$ 7,469.27
Total circulation department.....	\$ 887.77	\$ 338.13	\$ 513.19	\$ 762.74	\$ 685.99	\$ 597.79	\$ 693.32	\$ 693.69	\$ 782.82	\$ 665.25	\$ 732.20	\$ 545.20	\$ 7,469.27
<b>Secretarial work:</b>													
<i>Sr</i> Correspondence.....	\$ 28.77	\$ 3.38	\$ 20.49	\$ 31.37	\$ 31.12	\$ 28.21	\$ 37.21	\$ 45.44	\$ 47.61	\$ 39.14	\$ 36.40	\$ 15.93	\$ 365.07
<i>Sd</i> Mail-keeping.....	44.05	5.62	16.20	26.98	20.15	25.03	16.71	13.49	10.40	20.39	15.28	20.05	\$ 222.95
<i>Sd</i> Mail-keeping and delivery.....	15.08	14.21	35.65	66.00	66.00	26.00	10.43	17.31	12.70	15.69	12.44	16.30	\$ 318.56
<i>Sr</i> Statistics and accounting.....	11.87	17.78	20.59	24.52	23.94	28.40	57.95	34.09	56.49	61.57	28.22	12.56	\$ 383.98
<i>St</i> Typing.....													
Total secretarial work.....	\$ 87.95	\$ 42.69	\$ 103.94	\$ 133.13	\$ 121.38	\$ 114.17	\$ 158.20	\$ 141.98	\$ 181.51	\$ 162.80	\$ 126.01	\$ 103.16	\$ 1,466.90
<b>Publicity:</b>													
<i>Pa</i> United publicity, <i>Allegu books</i> .....	\$ 10.76	\$ 0.25	\$ 0.46	\$ 8.86	\$ 4.03	\$ 0.55	\$ 27.67	\$ 1.15	\$ 26.89	\$ 0.47	\$ 0.90		\$ 10.60
<i>Pa</i> Entertaining, library functions.....	2.40		1.43	4.90	4.03	10.41	12.17	137.69	108.10	12.03	\$ 66.20		\$ 163.25
<i>Pa</i> Library exhibits, bulletin boards.....			1.21		0.15	10.41	12.17	137.69	108.10	0.40	28.20	24.31	\$ 341.00
Total publicity work.....	\$ 13.22	\$ 0.25	\$ 3.15	\$ 17.79	\$ 6.70	\$ 38.08	\$ 13.20	\$ 164.58	\$ 118.61	\$ 19.99	\$ 94.40	\$ 25.94	\$ 516.00
<b>Miscellaneous:</b>													
<i>Mc</i> Special collection work.....			\$ 2.80	\$ 0.70			\$ 1.40	\$ 1.20					\$ 6.10
<i>Mc</i> Duplicates, checking and disposal.....	\$ 1.96	\$ 17.80	\$ 44.05	\$ 11.20	\$ 6.31	\$ 21.33			\$ 1.84	\$ 11.07	\$ 0.42		\$ 100.32
<i>Md</i> Staff meetings.....	208.56	261.86	63.30	22.76	0.15	7.21							\$ 503.90
<i>Md</i> Inventory.....	\$ 310.54	\$ 263.50	\$ 83.99	\$ 68.13	\$ 11.40	\$ 8.84	\$ 22.63	\$ 1.20	\$ 1.84	\$ 25.97	\$ 21.84	\$ 65.38	\$ 670.32
Total miscellaneous work.....	\$ 310.54	\$ 263.50	\$ 83.99	\$ 68.13	\$ 11.40	\$ 8.84	\$ 22.63	\$ 1.20	\$ 1.84	\$ 25.97	\$ 21.84	\$ 65.38	\$ 670.32



cerned, is all there is to it—reasonably accurate and complete, but hardly esoteric, and certainly not expensive.

Further reference to Form C will show that it divides all the labor of our library staff into eleven main divisions and forty subdivisions. Of the eleven main divisions, however, only eight are “productive,” as we defined the word, that is, perform directly measurable services for users of the library. Labor in the other three main divisions of library time is subsidiary to, or collateral to, the labor in the eight productive divisions. But we have already pointed out that since “non-productive” time

TABLE I  
ALLOCATION OF THE LIBRARIAN'S SALARY

Item	Percentage
1. Acquisition.....	30
2. Accessioning.....	4
3. Cataloging.....	10
4. Circulation (including Publicity).....	22
5. Reader service (Reference and research).....	17
6. Book storage.....	10
7. Periodical work.....	3
8. Binding.....	4
	<hr/>
	100

must be paid for, it must also be accounted for in any proper cost keeping. (And we have also pointed out that it is in its failure to do this necessary accounting for “non-productive” labor that most amateur cost accounting falls down.) How is this “indirect,” or “unproductive,” labor to be accounted for? Obviously by allocating it—that is, by equitably dividing it up and adding its parts—to the labor costs of the various eight productive divisions.<sup>23</sup>

The two administrative officers of the library keep no time sheets—mainly because in their cases any just functional allocation of their salaries involves consideration of other factors than time. The allocation shown in Table I is really entirely a

<sup>23</sup> Of course, total labor costs, as arrived at from one's cost accounting, and total labor costs, as recorded in one's bookkeeping, should balance; it is only in the interior allocations of labor costs that more or less arbitrary judgments enter.

matter of judgment—but of as good judgment as we could make, considering all the factors.

"Secretarial labor" is similarly allocated, and according to the schedule shown in Table II.<sup>24</sup>

That small group of items that our cost sheet terms the "Publicity" activities of the library deserves special mention, as these are somewhat difficult to allocate on a functional basis. Their direct labor costs were segregated instead of being lumped under a "Miscellaneous" heading, simply because it was of some interest to us to know just how much actual time they did con-

TABLE II  
ALLOCATION OF SECRETARIAL LABOR

Item	Percentage
1. Acquisition.....	44
2. Accessioning.....	10
3. Cataloging.....	4
4. Circulation.....	6
5. Reader service (Reference and research).....	10
6. Book storage.....	3
7. Periodical work.....	18
8. Binding.....	5
	<hr/> 100

sume. They include the editing of our *Handbook*, our quarterly bulletin, *About books*, and our other library publications; the setting-up of our exhibits, and the care of our display material generally; any staff work done for our library lectures; our "Fireside Readings" and teas; and any time spent by staff members in entertaining library guests—and, our building being new and attractive, we have many visitors. By analogy there is some ground, from the standpoint of cost accounting for treating all these as the library's "selling" or "advertising" expenses! Obviously, however, this analogy is not entirely valid.

Besides "Publicity," Form C shows four "Miscellaneous" items. Two of the four we have found that we practically do not use. Another, "Inventory" (together with "Stack work"

<sup>24</sup> This, of course, applies only to that portion of secretarial time which is "indirect," such as correspondence and mail ordering. All secretarial work which is directly chargeable to any division is so charged on the time sheets of those concerned.

under "Circulation"), we allocate to "Book storage and care." This leaves "Staff meetings" allocated, together with all of "Publicity," as simply miscellaneous indirect labor. Our apportionment of this item is given in Table III.

TABLE III

## ALLOCATION OF MISCELLANEOUS INDIRECT LABOR

Item	Percentage
1. Acquisition.....	6
2. Accessioning.....	4
3. Cataloging.....	8
4. Circulation.....	10
5. Reader service (Reference and research).....	16
6. Book storage (mainly "Inventory").....	52
7. Periodical work.....	2
8. Binding.....	2
	100

Table IV shows the totals of the allocations of all our labor costs, both indirect and direct, for the year 1934-35.

TABLE IV

## ALLOCATION OF ALL LABOR COSTS, DIRECT AND INDIRECT, 1934-35

Item	Direct Labor	Administrative and Secretarial	Miscellaneous Indirect Labor	Total Labor
1. Acquisition.....	\$ 592.69	\$1,852.05	\$ 37.32	\$ 2,482.06
2. Accessioning.....	1,068.51	346.69	24.88	1,440.08
3. Cataloging.....	9,571.18	558.56	49.76	10,179.50
4. Circulation.....	5,840.30	1,481.99	62.24	7,384.53
5. Reader service.....	1,530.55	996.69	99.58	2,626.82
6. Book storage.....	2,192.67	543.90	323.76	3,060.53
7. Periodical work.....	952.27	414.54	12.44	1,379.25
8. Binding.....	2,570.58	272.48	12.44	2,855.50
Total.....	\$24,318.95	\$6,466.90	\$622.42	\$31,408.27

#### VIII. THE ALLOCATION OF MISCELLANEOUS AND RAW-MATERIALS EXPENSE

We have just allocated "labor overhead." But of vastly more importance is "general overhead," that group of charges commonly known as "general expenses." It is when we come to this

second main category of library costs that comparative simplicity changes into occasionally rather puzzling complexity. And this change is due not merely to the fact that the allocation of overhead expense is less a matter of mathematical measurement and more a matter of personal judgment but also to the fact that, in discussing library overhead, we find ourselves faced with a number of accounting questions for the answering of which we have no business precedent of any sort to guide us. We enter uncharted accounting territory.

"Overhead expense," we are told, includes all the charges of every sort (other than labor and raw materials) incurred in the conduct of the operation being analyzed. We are further told that, unlike charges for labor and raw materials, which are always "actual," charges for overhead "may be either actual or nominal." Specifically they include: "rent" (i.e., the cost of housing the operation), and this "rent" may, or may not, include such collateral expenses as heat, light, power, water, etc.; the "operating cost" of all "machinery and equipment" necessary to the conduct of the operation: telephone charges, printing, stationery, postage, trucking, travel, etc. (i.e., the thousand and one little items that we usually conveniently lump as "miscellaneous expenses").

For purposes of elimination let us take this last category first. We arrive at its figures by simply running over, at the end of the year, all our miscellaneous charges of every kind and sorting them among the "productive" divisions of the work of the library.

Defying usual cost-accounting practice, we also included here "raw materials," simply because, whatever they may be in business, in library work their importance is negligible. What few charges might be so designated (such as cloth and boards for the bindery and cards for the catalog division) did not seem to us worth separate treatment.

The result of our allocation of all these "miscellaneous expenses" is given in Table V. This particular allocation took a couple of hours' time at the end of the year. It would have been quite possible to have taken a good deal more time, and in the

case of some items (postage, for example) to have attempted a good deal of careful refinement in allocation. But most of the items automatically placed themselves; the ones calling for arbitrary allocation were few and relatively small; and further refinement in exactitude would probably not, in the long run, have appreciably affected the net results. It may pay to go to considerable trouble in making *basic* cost determinations, the ones that are going to be used year after year, or again and again, as measuring sticks for secondary allocations; it does not pay to devote too much time and expense to small secondary details.

TABLE V

ALLOCATION OF RAW MATERIALS AND MISCELLANEOUS  
OVERHEAD EXPENSE, 1934-35

1. Acquisition.....	\$ 332.07
2. Accessioning.....	194.86
3. Cataloging.....	1,381.93
4. Circulation.....	793.37
5. Reader service.....	511.15
6. Book storage.....	315.22
7. Periodical work.....	115.00
8. Binding.....	1,519.21
Total.....	\$5,162.81

IX. THE COMPUTATION AND ALLOCATION OF  
BUILDING RENTAL

In almost all libraries the largest single item of overhead expense is building rental. Now, inasmuch as some librarians may be under the impression that, if their library owns its own building, it is under no expense for rental, it may be desirable, before going further, to make clear the meaning of a phrase that formed part of our originally quoted definition of "general overhead," namely, the statement that "these charges may be *actual or nominal*."

If a library happens to occupy a rented building—if, in other words, its "rent" is "actual"—then the computation of its rent, for cost-accounting purposes, requires no more than the copy-

ing-off of a bookkeeping entry. But most libraries occupy buildings of their own: their rental burdens are, from the accountant's viewpoint, "nominal." They are not being directly paid out in cash; they have to be computed.

When a library occupies a building which it owns, what does its "rental" (the cost of its housing) consist of? It always consists of at least the following items: (a) interest on the investment<sup>25</sup> which was made in the building; (b) the depreciation<sup>25</sup> and obsolescence accruing on it; (c) insurance on it; (d) heat and light expenditures; (e) janitorial labor; (f) janitorial expenses and supplies; and (g) building repairs.

It may be more informative—because specific—to outline the procedures we followed at Wesleyan in computing our own annual rental charge and in making its functional allocation, pointing out where, if anywhere, they are atypical. As we proceed, it may seem that some of our computations were of some complexity. It should always be remembered, as was previously remarked, that we were engaged in making an original cost-accounting setup, and one where both professional precedents and the necessary prior statistical data for our own building were lacking. It must always be remembered that the installation of a cost system for the first time is one thing; its subsequent maintenance, quite another.

There is not space here to discuss, as fully as one might wish, those questions of policy and procedure in the determinations of library overhead which are peculiar to library practice. It is to be hoped that our American Library Association Committee on Cost Accounting will discuss such questions as these and will eventually give us reasonably definitive decisions. Take, for example, the very first factor of "rent." What rate of "interest on investment" should we accept as "standard" for library buildings? For this question of rate is, of course, not a question of bookkeeping per se at all, but one of policy. To establish standard rates for investment, for depreciation, for insurance, etc., is

<sup>25</sup> This is not the place to argue the validity of such nominal costs as "interest on investment" and "depreciation." It can only be said that no informed business man dreams of questioning their stern reality. Any librarian curious for further information as to the necessity of their inclusion in a cost determination is referred to any of the standard accounting texts.

one of the commonest functions of trade associations; obviously the American Library Association is the proper body to perform this function for libraries. What, then, shall be "approved practice" on these various points? The wise business man always errs in the direction of conservatism. Should the wise librarian do less? Wisely or not, we chose 5 per cent as our interest-on-investment rate in our own building-rental cost accounting.

Building depreciation varies, they tell us, according to the type and quality of its construction, its location, amount and kind of use, climatic conditions, the repairing policy followed, and a dozen other factors. With well-built library buildings it is probable that obsolescence is a factor of far greater importance than actual depreciation.<sup>46</sup> Lacking, as we do, any approved professional standards of library-building depreciation, it would be quite possible to devote an entire paper to the discussion of the various aspects of this one phase of our cost accounting. It must be sufficient here, however, to state that we at Wesleyan took 2 per cent per annum as our rate—and to add that this is almost surely too low.

In our own case, water, heat, light, and telephone service are centrally supplied to the various buildings of the University and are not separately metered; an exact determination of these various subsidiary rental costs was therefore impossible. "Janitorial labor" (and the item "Building repairs") could be exactly stated; but "Janitorial supplies and expenses" we were also obliged to estimate. Submetering would, of course, give an exact determination of several of these costs; and the general system of cost accounting which is now under way at Wesleyan for the whole University will eventually give us the others. In the meantime, using what data we had, and our best judgment, we arrived at the figures given in Table VI for the "rental" cost of our Olin Memorial Library building for the year 1934-35.

So much for our main library building. We next faced this question—one that almost every college library which attempts cost accounting will have to face: Should our cost accounting

<sup>46</sup> Some of our more farsighted librarians are of the opinion that most of our present-day library buildings are, if anything, being built too well, meaning by that that they are going to be functionally obsolete long before they are structurally worn out. If that is the case, then, paradoxically, money is being wasted in too durable construction.



endeavor to determine the costs of operating only such of our library as was contained in our main (Olin Memorial) building, or should we endeavor to determine our costs for the entire library of the University, including such of its departmental collections as are housed in various other of the University buildings? A decision either way involved difficulties. If we included the various outside libraries, each in a different building, we would have to figure rental costs independently on each building, and so would multiply by eight all our various computations (and also, to some extent, would blur our cost results so

TABLE VI

## ANNUAL RENTAL, OLIN MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Interest on investment: 5 per cent on (\$727,055, original cost, less accrued depreciation of \$101,787) \$625,268.....	\$31,262
Depreciation and obsolescence: 2 per cent on \$727,055.....	14,541
Insurance.....	1,473
Heat.....	3,898
Light, telephone service, and water.....	660
Janitorial labor.....	2,652
Janitorial supplies and expenses.....	290
Building repairs.....	1,268
Total.....	\$56,044

far as our main building was concerned.) If we did not include them, we burdened the main library—in which is centralized all our cataloging, accessioning, and circulation work—with certain costs the tangible results of which are housed elsewhere.

We eventually decided to consider in our rental costs, for the present at least, only our main building; to give the library staff full credit, however, for all cataloging, accessioning, etc., done by them wherever the results of it were located; to deduct from the library's grand total of all volumes "stored" such book holdings as were maintained in collections outside the main building, so that, if we should later decide to attempt to determine our "book storage" costs, our main building would have credited to it only the books actually being stored there. These vari-

ous decisions were obviously equitable, and collectively they greatly simplified our initial accounting.<sup>27</sup>

Having secured the foregoing annual rental charge for our library building, our next step was its "breakdown," or functional allocation. When we attempt any allocation of the space in a library building, we recognize very quickly that it falls into two main parts: that part which, speaking generally of course, serves the public; and that part which, speaking generally again, is devoted to the internal, or technical, administration of the library. Of course, from one point of view, every library function is a service to its users; but, however much the two sorts of service overlap, this distinction between internal service (which means getting the books and getting them ready for public use) and external, or public, service (i.e., using the books afterward) is a natural and commonly accepted one. It was on this broad distinction, further subdivided by these various functional divisions of the library's work which we have already used, that our rental allocation was based.

To show the method used in allocating, let us run through very briefly how we handled it in our own case. First, every room in the building (including, of course, all halls, closets, stairways, etc.) was carefully measured and its cubic<sup>28</sup> contents computed. The cubic footage of all these rooms, as thus arrived at, was then functionally allocated, as shown in Table VII.<sup>29</sup> Knowing the annual rental cost of the building (Table VI) and its allocated cubic footage (Table VII), the determina-

<sup>27</sup> Simply as a matter of record, it might be noted that our seven outside departmental libraries comprised on July 1, 1935, 15,441 volumes, housed in 51,416 cubic feet of space, which space provided, collectively, 140 seats for readers and 2,882 linear feet of shelving. None of these statistical items are, however, included in any of our cost figures below.

<sup>28</sup> This necessity was peculiar to us because of the fact that the various rooms of our main building show no less than seven different ceiling heights. Usually the rooms throughout any one building are of the same ceiling height, and allocations of rental can be made on a square-foot basis.

<sup>29</sup> Where rooms fall into two or more categories of use, as is often the case, the cubic contents are proportionately divided by as close an estimation as possible. For example, our seminar rooms are mainly reading-rooms, but they also provide some books storage; the cataloging room is mainly for cataloging, but it also provides some book storage; the main lobby is chiefly a hallway, but it is also partly circulation department, partly cataloging department, and used partly for display purposes, etc.

tion of functional rentals becomes a matter of division and multiplication.

X. THE COMPUTATION AND ALLOCATION OF  
EQUIPMENT COST

But the computed rental of the building which houses the library is only part of the rental story. The other part has to do

TABLE VII

## FUNCTIONAL ALLOCATION OF SPACE, OLIN MEMORIAL LIBRARY

	Cubic Feet
1. Acquisition.....	3,800
2. Accessioning.....	3,600
3. Cataloging.....	16,556
4. Circulation.....	4,200
7. Periodicals.....	3,696
8. Binding.....	6,840
General administrative.....	6,200
Secretarial.....	1,900
Total library administrative use.....	46,792
5. Main reading-room.....	55,272
5. Seminars.....	39,232
5. All other reading-rooms.....	25,138
5. Carrels.....	21,840
6. Book storage.....	137,736
Publicity and exhibit space.....	14,100
Memorial Hall,* vestibule, etc.....	67,400
Hallways, stairways, toilets, fan room, etc.....	143,336
Total library public use.....	504,054
Non-library use†.....	110,736
Total space in building.....	661,582

\* The Memorial Hall constitutes the entrance of the library.

† The Art Department of the University is housed at present in the library building. There is also included in this item such cubic space (as that over the porch, for example, and that in the attic over the skylights) as is not available for functional use of any sort.

with the furniture and equipment in the building. The cost "burden" of this equipment is figured in very much the same way as building rental is. And, if the necessary data are available—which in this case means a properly detailed equipment

inventory—the determination of equipment costs is a simple matter. If, however, the library has not maintained any equipment inventory (and we had had none at Wesleyan), it is necessary to make one before cost accounting for equipment can be proceeded with.<sup>30</sup> A proper equipment inventory will list specifically every item of equipment, big and little, from wastebaskets to typewriters. It will also show: the original cost of

TABLE VIII

## FUNCTIONAL ALLOCATION OF BUILDING RENTAL

1. Acquisition.....	\$ 357.60
2. Accessioning.....	331.20
3. Cataloging.....	1,535.20
4. Circulation.....	458.40
7. Periodicals.....	388.40
8. Binding.....	687.60
<hr/>	
Total administrative use rental*.....	\$ 3,758.40
5. Reading and reference.....	25,615.50
6. Book storage.....	12,257.60
<hr/>	
Total public use rental*.....	\$37,873.10
Rental of non-library use of building*....	14,412.50
<hr/>	
Total.....	\$56,044.00

\* Dividing the rental of "Halls, stairways, etc.," proportionately between "Library use" and "Non-library use."

each item (and, for cost accounting purposes, this means not "invoiced cost" but "delivered and installed cost"—which in some cases is quite a different matter); the proper rate of depreciation upon each (and for this, except on items peculiar to libraries, there is a wealth of accepted precedent); and the net value of each item as of the date of the inventory.

In computing equipment costs the following points might be noted: (1) To "Equipment" we charge only "Interest on invest-

<sup>30</sup> Although it is possible, of course, for the librarian to make his own inventory, expense will be saved, in most cases, and a more accurate result obtained, if the job is left, as it is left by most business firms, to some one of the appraisal engineering firms specializing in this type of work. These expert appraising organizations will place on one's desk a neatly typed, bound book giving a detailed cost record of every item of equipment in a building for a surprisingly modest cost and in incredibly short time.

ment," "Depreciation and obsolescence," and "Insurance and repairs." "Heat, light, janitorial costs, etc." have already been taken care of under "Building." (2) The reason that the equipment inventory must figure depreciation item by item is that the rate of depreciation varies, and varies greatly, with almost every item. (On typewriters, for instance, it may run to 50 per cent per annum; on catalog card cases it may be 3 per cent, or even less.) (3) The estimation of "equipment rental" is, in the case of a library, vastly further complicated by the fact that overwhelm-

TABLE IX  
EQUIPMENT OVERHEAD (EXCEPT BOOKS), OLIN MEMORIAL  
LIBRARY, 1934-35

	Book Value July 1, 1934	Rental Burden 1934-35
1. Acquisition.....	\$ 211	\$ 42
2. Accessioning.....	186	36
3. Cataloging.....	2,960	228
4. Circulation.....	122	16
5. Reading and reference (and general public use).....	27,834	3,086
6. Book storage.....	5,360	420
7. Periodicals.....	210	37
8. Binding.....	1,206	181
<hr/>		
Total equipment value and rental (except books).....	\$38,089	\$4,046

ingly the most important item of "equipment" in any library is its *library*, i.e., the book collection itself. And the reason our cost accounting here becomes complicated is that any attempt to estimate the annual "cost" of the "library" develops all sorts of problems so peculiar to library practice that we are able to derive no help from commercial precedents.

Table IX gives the totals, duly allocated to our various functional "divisions," of our "equipment rental" (other than our books) for the year 1934-35.<sup>31</sup>

<sup>31</sup> As we had, when we started, no equipment inventory, it was necessary for us to list over fourteen hundred separate items of equipment, determine the original cost of each and its equitable rate of depreciation, then compute the accrued depreciation on each, and allocate the net result to its proper functional "division"—the whole not a small task when done for the first time! While this paper was in process, the writer was privileged to compare our own inventory figures with an official inventory which had just been completed by the University.

## XI. WE ANSWER OUR SIX QUESTIONS

It will be noted that all the six questions which we asked ourselves in the forepart of this paper were concerned with the "internal" administration of the library. It would obviously be of interest to know the answers to many more cost questions than these six, and also to have answers to questions regarding the costs of the public phases of the library's activities as well as its administrative phases. But it seemed unwise here to attempt to go into the latter, simply because they involved so many novel problems that anything like an adequate discussion of them would have required a paper of itself.

For instance, by what "units of output"—and all cost accounting, it will be remembered, requires some sort of a unit of output as a measuring-rod—can we measure the reference work of a library? Is it possible to measure it? Circulation can be measured—quantitatively (and to some extent qualitatively); but what of reference work? Can it be measured by tabulating "reader-hours" of reading-room occupancy? That is certainly a measuring-stick, but it is a purely quantitative one, and probably little better than none at all. And the use of even this unit of output was for us impossible, simply because no reader-hour statistics were available or easily procured.

Or, take the question of the cost of "book storage." Here units of output are obvious, and can, of course, be easily measured. And the basic question here—never yet answered—"What does it cost us to keep an average book one year on the shelves of our library?" is one as intriguing as it is intensely practical. I would like very much to see a reasonably accurate answer to it. But this matter of book storage, although it involves no question of output measurement, happens to involve other questions which are even more puzzling and on which there is at present no professional consensus of opinion. For instance: "How are we to establish a 'value' to the books in a library that will stand up under expert accounting criticism?" And the subsidiary question: "What is the proper rate of depreciation upon library books, and how is it to be applied?"

It now remains to summarize the conclusion of our cost procedure. First, we assembled all the various cost data that we

had, step by step, secured. Thus assembled (and simplifying, for the purposes of this paper, the monthly assembly sheets which we actually used), our consolidated cost sheet for 1934-35 appeared as it does in Table X.

Having thus assembled and departmentalized all our operating costs, we neared the end of our quest, for all we then had to do was to wed these departmental costs for the year (derived primarily from our bookkeeping) to our units of output (derived primarily from our statistics). For unit costs—the ultimate data

TABLE X  
SUMMARIZED TOTAL OF ALL OPERATING COSTS, WESLEYAN  
UNIVERSITY LIBRARY, 1934-35

	Labor	Building Rental	Equipment Rental (Other Than "Books")	Miscellaneous Overhead Expenses	Total Costs
1. Acquisition . . . . .	\$ 2,482.06	\$ 357.60	\$ 42.00	\$ 332.07	\$ 3,213.73
2. Accessioning . . . . .	1,440.08	331.20	36.00	194.86	2,002.14
3. Cataloging . . . . .	10,179.50	1,535.20	228.00	1,381.93	13,324.63
4. Circulation . . . . .	7,384.53	458.40	16.00	793.37	8,652.30
5. Public use of library (reading and reference)	2,626.82	25,615.50	3,086.00	511.15	31,839.47
6. Book storage . . . . .	3,060.53	12,257.60	420.00	315.22	16,053.35
7. Periodical work . . . . .	1,379.25	388.40	37.00	115.00	1,919.65
8. Binding . . . . .	2,855.50	687.60	181.00	1,519.21	5,243.31
Totals . . . . .	\$31,408.27	\$41,631.50	\$4,046.00	\$5,162.81	\$82,248.58

we were seeking—are, of course, secured by dividing units of output into the respective costs of the various outputs. We are therefore now ready to take up, *seriatim*, the six basic questions that we asked our cost keeping at the start:

1. What does it cost us at Wesleyan (on the average) to order and purchase a book? *Answer:* the labor expense of operating our acquisition division in 1934-35 was \$2,482.06; the total expense (labor plus all overhead) was \$3,213.73. We acquired a total of 12,463 volumes. The average labor cost of all acquisitions was therefore (omitting fractions) \$0.20 a volume; and the average total cost, \$0.26 a volume.

2. What does it cost us at Wesleyan to accession an average volume? (By "accessioning" meaning not only accession



numbering but also plating, pocketing, call-number marking, page cutting, and all the other routines necessary to put a received book on the shelves—excepting, however, cataloging.) *Answer:* Our labor cost for accessioning in 1934-35 was \$1,440.08; our total accessioning costs, \$2,002.14; we accessioned 10,265 volumes. Our average labor cost in 1934-35 for accessioning was therefore \$.13 per volume; and our average total cost per volume for accessioning, \$.19.

3. What does cataloging cost us at Wesleyan? *Answer:* We cataloged, during the year 1934-35, 14,461 volumes.<sup>32</sup> We had a cataloging labor cost for the year of \$10,179.50 and a total cataloging cost of \$13,324.63. We thus arrive at an average cataloging labor cost (including, as in all these figures, overhead labor as well as direct labor) of \$.70 per volume, and a total cataloging cost of \$.92 per volume. Our direct labor cost for cataloging (the only figure comparable with previous determinations of "cataloging cost") was \$9,571.18, or \$.66 per volume. (This, of course, involves books of all ages, in a dozen or more languages, and of all degrees of cataloging difficulty, from current fiction to incunabula.)<sup>33</sup>

4. What does it cost us at Wesleyan to "circulate" a book? *Answer:* For our own information we segregate "reserve" from "regular" circulation. The labor cost of circulating 29,683 reserve books was \$1,339.38, or \$.045 per volume; the labor cost of circulating 31,001 regular books was \$4,465.74, or \$.144 per volume. The overhead cost of circulation was, for the year,

<sup>32</sup> We cataloged, in 1934-35, 10,214 volumes; we recataloged 4,247 volumes. The recataloging was, however, very largely of volumes originally cataloged so many years ago that their first cataloging was of little or no present help; and, even with later books, it has been our experience that, what with erasures and card-changing, recataloging is as expensive as original cataloging. In other words, although we statistically differentiate "cataloged books" and "recataloged," we see no valid reason to differentiate them in our cost accounting. The University of California found—in its own opinion "rather strangely"—that the cost of its recataloging was well below that of its new cataloging; Mr. C. H. Brown "should expect" the reverse. We have found, as stated, no appreciable difference in average cost.

<sup>33</sup> Card-filing costs are included in the foregoing cataloging costs. For our own information, however, we also separately segregated filing labor costs. We filed in our own library catalogs during the year 34,326 cards, at a filing labor cost of \$426.54, or an average labor cost of \$.012 per card. (We did not make a subsegregation of filing overhead.)

\$1,267.77. We made no attempt to divide circulation overhead between reserve and regular books. If, however, it is divided between them proportionately to the number of books circulated (probably a fairly equitable apportionment<sup>34</sup>), we secure \$0.066 as the total cost of reserve circulation per volume, and \$0.164 as the total cost of regular circulation per volume.

5. What does it cost us at Wesleyan to receive, check, sort, and distribute our periodicals? *Answer:* Our periodicals division handled, during 1934-35, 15,436 items, at a labor cost of \$1,379.25 and a total cost of \$1,919.65. This would give a labor cost of \$0.08 per item handled, and a total cost, including overhead, of \$0.11 per item.

6. What does it cost us at Wesleyan to bind a book? *Answer:* In our own bindery (installed two years ago) we bound 3,820 volumes in 1934-35 (almost entirely periodicals) and repaired 1,792 volumes. (The repairs, of course, ranged from little to much: a book requiring resewing or recasing we count as a "binding.") Our labor cost for binding was \$2,586.70; for repairing \$268.80. Our materials cost for binding was \$1,429.61; and for repairing, \$89.60. The overhead cost of operating our bindery was \$868.60. If we allocate overhead costs in the same proportion as labor and materials costs (and this is probably a closely equitable allocation), we have \$4,807.96 as the total cost of 3,820 books bound, or \$1.26 per volume; and \$435.45 as the total cost of 1,792 books repaired, or \$0.24 per volume.

## XII. BUT IS LIBRARY COST ACCOUNTING REALLY WORTH WHILE?

Having come so far, perhaps a few words of caution are in order. We are told that figures sometimes lie. And this is something that even cost figures may, to all intents and purposes, also do, simply because, although they may be technically correct, the factors that condition them are either unknown or unusual or poorly understood. Of all gods, the God of Efficiency is not one to be worshiped blindly—least of all by librarians; and in our search to attain administrative perfection we must always

<sup>34</sup> It will be noted that, as compared with labor, overhead is here a relatively unimportant item, so that total costs are little affected however overhead is allocated.

beware of running up blind alleys. We must ever remember what was said by implication in the section just preceding, that the finest service that every library gives is the very one that can never be measured. There are intangible factors in the work of the librarian that no cost-accounting system can ever reach, for books are more than a mass of stamped white paper between two boards; library buildings are—or should be—more than mere shelters from the weather; and library staffs cannot, factory-wise, grind out a standardized product—and be worth their salaries.

But, granted the desirability of uttering these words of caution, do they lead to the conclusion that library cost accounting has no practical value? Admittedly, it is still in a very embryonic stage. (And, as I read it over, I am not a little inclined to believe that this very paper will seem at once so tedious, and so bristling with question marks, as to kill further interest in the subject in all but the hardiest of enthusiasts!) Must we assume, however, that it is so embryonic that it is impossible to get away from the complexities of pure accounting theory? Or is it possible, on the other hand, to suggest a program that will even now be practicable for the average small library? The answer is "yes," provided such a library does not, for the present, attempt anything beyond an accounting of its labor costs. Just because we at Wesleyan were sufficiently interested in the subject to endeavor to carry through a complete cost analysis does not mean that every library at all interested in cost accounting must also go this far. I have some hopes, of course, that this work of ours at Wesleyan, however tentative its conclusions, may be of some assistance to later investigators. But, if it is of any use, it will be not so much for the questions it answers as for the questions it asks; not so much for the actual cost figures it has arrived at as for the fields in which it suggests further discussion and investigation.

In the meantime, however, the collection of actual library costs need not stop. A very simple form (for labor costs only) could be devised, by means of which any library curious to ascertain its own labor costs could do so easily. For labor costs involve no intricate theory or prolonged computation; and, to the

average library, as has been said, they are of much greater immediate practical value than any quantity of overhead determinations.

The study of even library labor costs has as yet hardly begun. There is so much we surmise, so much we guess at, but as yet so little that we really know. For instance, in business, generally speaking, mass production makes for lower unit costs. Does this law hold good for libraries? Do unit costs run lower as the library gets larger? If not, why not? It is one thing to point out that the larger the library the larger the proportion of books difficult to catalog and classify; that the cost of card filing goes up almost in geometrical proportion as card catalogs become larger and larger; that even circulation costs rise as books have to travel greater distances and the machinery of circulation, both human and mechanical, becomes more complex. But big business faces very much the same sorts of increasingly complex conditions, and, thanks to enormously increased outputs, overcomes them. Is it that the big library does not *sufficiently* increase its various outputs? One can now only query?

I have as yet not mentioned one of the objections which has been sometimes raised to all library-cost-accounting effort. It is the one—advanced half jestingly, half seriously—that might be termed the “let-sleeping-dogs-lie” objection, the objection that a revelation to the general public of the real costs of certain of our library functions would be, it is feared, so disconcerting as to threaten the overturn of some of the most cherished of library traditions!

To this attitude I can only reply in the words of a librarian<sup>35</sup> far wiser than I in those traditions:

We must establish more of the facts of library service—some will be unpleasant to meet—but we must face them fearlessly. The standards and the methods of present day library management grew up during a great boom period in economic development, in population and in national wealth. The future, so far as we can see beyond the Crossroads, will be quite unlike the past, at least in these respects. It is, therefore, our job to study and to re-

<sup>35</sup> Clarence Sherman, “From Petersborough to the crossroads,” *Library journal*, LX, 594.

evaluate every function of public libraries in terms of a period of reduction, reduction in economic growth, in population, and in national resources. The years ahead of us give little promise of constantly increasing financial support. We shall have less to do with than in the past, and we should be about the task of a new approach to the principles of library management.

Or, as another expression of the same viewpoint, even though it refers to a different library problem and so is couched in entirely different language, one might ponder these words from that most challenging article<sup>36</sup> of Mr. Angus MacDonald two years ago:

We must admit at the outset that the use of traditional library architecture will not solve the problem. It has fundamental faults. . . . The principal handicap is the tyranny of long established habit. Our library buildings still follow the traditions of regal display at the expense of utility. . . . This tyranny of tradition in library architecture has been so great that these wastes and handicaps have continued many years after they could have been eliminated.

One would not go far wrong in asserting that it was the very purpose of cost accounting to disturb complacency. When he was Secretary of Commerce, Mr. William C. Redfield once said:

Efficiency means keen self-criticism. It means to go out . . . and find nothing that is sacred or fixed. It means that six months ago shall be ancient history. It means the dropping of tradition, the forgetting of ghosts, the questioning of *everything*.

Yet, one final word of warning. Even to efficiency, cost accounting is, of itself, no "open sesame." In and of itself no cost system can cut costs. All it can do is to show the administrator where costs may, and should, be cut. As one cost authority puts it: "A good cost system is a telescope which brings every activity . . . to a sharp focus, and makes the abnormal items, the wastes and mistakes stand out to catch the eye."<sup>37</sup> Yet, however effective a tool cost accounting may be, it is only a tool. And no tool does work unless it is used, and every tool does its best work in the hands of a skilled craftsman.

<sup>36</sup> "A library of the future," *Library journal*, LVIII, 1023-25.

<sup>37</sup> *Costs and statistics*, p. 9.

## SCHOOL LIBRARY STUDIES AND RESEARCH

ELEANOR M. WITMER

**B**ECAUSE the library has so recently become a recognized, integral part of the school plant and program, it offers unusual opportunities for study and research. Many avenues are open and many studies are needed to enable those who administer and use school libraries to move on a scientific basis toward an extension and improvement of their services. As yet too little is known about how practices successful in a few schools can be adapted to serve different ages and backgrounds in the many types of schools which are common in the United States. Few statistics have been compiled on the costs of school-library services. The availability and qualifications of school librarians must be studied further.

The school library is not a new institution. It extends back into the early history of American education. The story of its evolution from a shelf of books accessible to a few good scholars to a modern suite of laboratory-conference-browsing rooms offering reading materials and audio-visual aids to every student is spectacular and full of promise. With the aid of research and experiment this new school library has every chance of fulfilling its enlarging social opportunities. What these are and how they can be met should present a challenge to librarians and educators interested in carrying on research of both a practical and an academic nature.

At present there are a very limited number of investigators at work who have that firsthand experience in the school-library field which is so essential for the intelligent interpretation of the facts and figures produced through research. School librarians who continue formal study in higher institutions will meet little competition in their field. On the other hand, they may find it difficult to gather from printed sources much of the information

they need to carry out their investigations. Field work will be highly desirable to overcome the limitations imposed by questionnaires. No lists of school libraries have been compiled to guide research workers who wish to observe progressive practices and tendencies. These will need to be prepared on the basis of the problems being studied. The advice of the school-library specialist of the American Library Association, of the associate specialist in school libraries of the United States Office of Education, and of the various state supervisors of school libraries should be sought if more than local observation or study is being planned.

The section of this article devoted to "Areas of investigation" has been prepared for the purpose of calling the attention of investigators to needed studies in the school-library field. Only those of first importance whose solution is currently significant have been included. A checking of these with the list of "Recent studies" should help investigators to avoid serious conflicts and to define their problems more sharply. No attempt at completeness has been made in the compilation of either list. The theses accepted in graduate library schools and schools of education form a major part of the list of investigations made up to this time. Anyone wishing to check all studies made should consult such guides as the annual *Bibliography of research studies in education* issued by the United States Office of Education.

Many of the suggested studies have been stated in the form of questions. An effort has been made to avoid forms and phrases commonly used in theses and dissertations even though many of the questions raised lend themselves to such forms of research. Those which are more practical or philosophical are intended to suggest problems which might well interest research workers in non-academic situations.

#### RESEARCH AREAS

The fields of investigation relating to school libraries are so varied and so extensive that some division of them seems desirable. The ten areas brought out here do not cover all aspects



of the subject but rather suggest divisions having special significance today. The problems formulated under each area have likewise been chosen for the importance of their relationship to current school-library practices. They are intended to help investigators and research workers see where the more pressing needs occur and, in some instances, how they relate to general educational problems. It is doubtful if any of them have been expressed in terms of theses or dissertations. Nevertheless, it is to be hoped that scholars as well as practitioners will find in them subjects for research which can be carried on in the university and in the field to the mutual advantage of student, school, and pupil.

### *I. The objectives of library service in schools*

It may be difficult for students and research workers to obtain statistics or experimental data on the problems in this field. However, forceful, interpretative studies are needed and should be prepared by persons having special powers of exposition.

1. The objectives of library service in elementary, junior, and senior high schools should be defined and the extent to which they are being met today and the methods of meeting them determined. On the basis of best practices an illuminating study could be made of the potential values of the library as an instrument of education.
2. There is need for a careful assessment of the influence of the school library on curricular developments and pupil attainment. Such a study would help to determine the place of the library in the educational program.

### *II. School library administration*

Libraries are now administered by boards of education, public-library boards, county library agencies, and jointly by boards of education and library boards. In some states supervisors direct and aid in the establishment and ad-

ministration of school libraries. Likewise a few larger cities employ school-library supervisors. In the individual schools programs for the use of the library are being formulated by principals, librarians, and teachers. The many problems which center around the establishment, maintenance, and supervision need scientific study.

1. Thousands of one- and two-teacher schools exist in the United States. Many of them serve as community centers. As yet comparatively few have library services of any kind. Studies should be made to discover: what type of services will serve them most effectively; how large an area can be served by a central agency; what factors will condition the type of services recommended; at what cost each type can be established and maintained; and what should be the relation of libraries in such schools to county and other forms of large-unit public-library service.
2. The status and function of school library supervisors in city and state school systems have never been the subject of careful study or investigation.
3. It has been reported that the library-study-hall combination encourages the wider use of library materials. A study is needed to clarify the relationship of the librarian to the study hall and to determine the conditions under which the library and the study hall may render their most effective services.
4. Comparable data on school libraries in the United States is almost non-existent with the exception of such data as have been collected from time to time by the United States Office of Education. More uniform record-keeping is desirable. This involves a study of statistical reports, a definition of terms, and recommendations for pupil and service accounting.
5. An examination and evaluation of the types and sources of the financial support accorded school libraries in (a) large cities, (b) towns, and (c) rural areas is needed by school administrators.

6. The cost of library services to schools is an important factor in determining their spread. Authoritative cost analysis in typical schools at various educational levels should be made available for educators and librarians.
7. The responsibilities of the public library to the community in providing book service for the local educational program for (a) children and adolescents, (b) teachers, and (c) adults should be determined.
8. The establishment of libraries in schools is believed to create more widespread interest in reading and increased demands for a variety of books. An examination of the influence of both circulating and non-circulating school libraries on the juvenile use of the local public library and its branches would help to establish evidence of value to all communities.
9. Problems of library service in small schools are occasioned largely by the fact that the library serves only a small group of pupils. Methods of enlarging the size of the group served, increasing the funds available for its support, and extending the services of the librarian are pertinent to improvement of services. Studies of such practices with cost analyses would furnish practical data for the administration of school-library service units in small cities, towns, and regional areas.
10. In rural districts school-library service is commonly administered through the county superintendent's office. A comparative analysis of reading and scholastic attainments of children with and without such service would indicate what values it had.
11. What school-library service should cost per pupil in (a) small towns, (b) cities, and (c) rural areas is a subject deserving investigation.
12. In large and small schools throughout the country librarians have pupil assistants. The value of such experience for the pupil, the services he should be

permitted to render, etc., are factors to be considered in a study of these assistants.

13. State school-library supervision has been introduced rather widely in the South. A study showing the effect of this control on the development of library services in schools and on the juvenile use of printed materials in these states should be made.

### III. *Library instruction*

A knowledge of book resources and an understanding of the school library and its tools are considered essential for independent study and continuing self-education. This applies to both pupils and teachers. Instruction which aims to develop abilities to use books and libraries is being given spasmodically in many elementary and secondary schools and in some teacher-training institutions.

1. A study of this type of instruction might devote itself to determining how the instruction can be improved; whether or not a separate library curriculum is desirable; whether teachers or librarians are the most effective instructors; what effect such instruction has on pupil attainment, and where such instruction should begin.
2. Library courses for elementary and secondary-school pupils differ widely in their content. A scientific determination of the knowledge and skills needed by children to carry out class assignments and to pursue individual reading interests at various educational levels is needed as a basis for revising the library curriculum.
3. The effect of library instruction in the secondary school on college-library usage and college scholastic attainments should be studied.
4. Progressive methods of teaching in the elementary and secondary schools demand skill in directing students' reading and study. A knowledge of book resources and library tools and techniques is involved. How

these can be presented most effectively in teacher-training programs, by whom, when, and where are all questions for study.

5. Orientation in the use of libraries as tools for professional study and leisure-time activities is recognized as desirable for all beginning students in teacher-training institutions. The nature of the knowledge needed by all such students and how and where it can best be made a part of their professional curriculum should be determined.

#### IV. *School library personnel: selection and training*

Expert school librarianship presupposes professional preparation, educational background, and personal traits which aid and stimulate the use of the library's resources.

1. Economic conditions have tended to raise requirements for professional workers in all fields. A determination of the desirable personal, academic, and professional qualifications for effective school-library service would be valuable. Studies of the qualifications of a hundred successful school librarians might be used to form a basis for the selection of candidates by professional library schools.
2. Aptitude tests have been devised for other professions. Have they significance for the school librarian? To what extent can they be modified for use as entrance tests for library schools? For vocational-guidance purposes?
3. Some special curriculums have been developed for training school librarians as apart from librarians expecting to enter other library fields. Few of these courses are based on any accurate knowledge of the problems confronting school librarians. A study of questions presented in progressive secondary-school libraries by pupils, teachers, parents, and other adults would furnish reliable data for determining the content of the reference courses for high-school librarians.

4. Preparation for school-library service is now being offered by (a) graduate library schools, (b) undergraduate library schools, (c) teachers colleges, (d) liberal arts colleges. A study of their placement records would show the types of schools in which graduates are placed; size and type of libraries; positions; salaries; extent of time given to library service; continued training; length of service; relationship of training to state certification requirements, and thus help to answer the question: Where should the school librarians of the future be trained?
5. Activity analyses of librarians in typical elementary, junior, and senior high schools would provide one basis for determining to what extent and how professional preparation should be differentiated and what common training could be given.
6. Many educators believe that teacher-training and experience are necessary prerequisites for successful school librarianship. No studies have yet been made of the preprofessional training and experience of successful school librarians.
7. The establishment of a school-library training agency in a given area is thought to be an important factor in promoting the establishment of libraries in schools and in increasing the use of trained librarians in that region. No careful studies have been made to prove the validity of this belief. They would be useful to those charged with determining the location and number of training centers needed.
8. The relations of age and sex to probable employment in school-library service provides a topic for investigation.
9. Teacher-librarians have been considered emergency or temporary agents for the smaller secondary schools. Facts and statistics are needed to show how widespread their employment has been; what size and kind of schools employ them; what services they

render; what training they have had; what vocational objectives they hold; what salaries, hours of service, etc., are involved. Such information is needed to (a) relate training to actual field conditions; (b) determine the best training agencies; (c) set standards for these agencies; (d) derive plans for professionalized, regional, school-library services.

10. Training for the various grade levels of school librarianship has as yet been accorded little variation except in literature courses. Investigations of the administrative, organization, and reading-guidance problems of the various levels would show if the present training practices are sound.
11. A study of whether or not school librarians want or need specialization of training in their first-year library curriculum and, if they do, what kind and degree of specialization is right presents a research project. This would lead to a formulation of the ideal program of training for school librarians.
12. Do school librarians tend to continue their library-school curriculum with in-service training? What lines do they follow? Why?
13. Teacher-training institutions have taken on a considerable share of responsibility for training persons to serve as teacher-librarians in small schools. On the whole they have adopted the library-school curriculum and have attempted to reproduce it in simplified form. Few if any schools have seen and grasped this opportunity to break away from the traditional pattern and to set up a curriculum based on actual small-school needs. Some studies of the conditions and needs of the small-school library might encourage experimentation.
14. A comparative study of the activities of school librarians and teacher-librarians would provide material for determining to what extent and how the training for these two types of service should differ.



### V. *Certification and standards*

Certification of school librarians represents an attempt to secure proper personnel through the setting-up of definite compulsory standards, to raise standards progressively, to weed out incompetents, and to fix the status of school librarianship.

1. Regional, state, and local standards for the employment of school librarians have been established in many sections of the United States. Comparisons of these with standards for teachers in the same areas with respect to training, hours of service, and salary are desired.
2. It is assumed that the widespread employment of qualified school librarians rests largely upon state certification laws. What results are evident in states having certification laws? Has the training tended to keep to the level of the lowest requirements? To what extent and where are more highly trained school librarians employed? What factors have influenced their employment?
3. Most state certification laws for the training and employment of school librarians are based on pupil attendance. Do service demands, duties, size of libraries, curriculum needs, and salaries warrant this basis for certification? If not, what should be the basis upon which to build a model certification law?

### VI. *Reading problems and the school library*

The school library touches the reading programs of the school at many points. Provision of reading materials, guidance and stimulation in their use, and the study of their effect on the individual pupil's learning and background constitute some of its major activities. These present a wide variety of problems and offer many avenues for research.

1. Vital reading materials for the mentally and physically handicapped and problem child are constantly

in demand. Studies of the reading interests of these special groups, the materials available, the best practices in directing their reading, and the organization of library services for them will form valuable contributions.

2. Psychologists tend to think that some mentally retarded children cannot be benefited by library services. What relationships can be traced between library usage and intelligence quotients of children from seven to twelve?
3. The influence of social factors on children's choice of books might well be investigated.
4. What effect have free library-reading periods on pupil attainment in the elementary school? A study of equated groups with special reference to (a) improvement in reading ability; (b) reading habits in and out of school; and (c) general scholastic attainment would be significant in determining the time which can profitably be given to library reading in the elementary school.
5. Public-library records show that about half of the young people registered as readers drop out between the ages of fourteen and twenty-one. Do readers attending high schools which provide library services make greater use of the library both during the high-school years and afterward than those who have not had these services?
6. What are the best devices used by secondary-school libraries for continuing the reading habit both during school days and after school days are over?
7. Book resources for young people in rural areas are meager, and careful selections are necessary because of the limited funds and collections. Studies of the reading interests of groups of young people out of school in rural areas would give basic information for the improvement of traveling collections.

8. Has the platoon school program with its scheduled library periods any noticeable influence on the reading habits and attainments of children as compared with the traditional school program?
9. Audio-visual materials play an important part in modern classroom teaching. The development, organization, and use of such materials by the school library need to be studied.
10. What techniques of individual study, reading assignments, and reports can be developed successfully with library-laboratory facilities available?
11. Librarians are inclined to disparage any attempts to produce literature with limited vocabulary content for special groups of children. Scientific studies of the usefulness of such series as the "Thorndike classics" in libraries dealing with dull normal classes would give facts which are needed to develop a program for this group.

## VII. *The library and its equipment*

1. Since the formulation of the American Library Association—National Education Association standards for library organization and equipment in 1920, important changes have been made in both the curriculum and the methods of teaching. The effect of these on the size and types of library rooms, their equipment, and layout is significant. A revision of standards for all types of schools should be made in the light of a careful review of the problems involved.<sup>1</sup>
2. The lack of adequate facilities is rated first among the difficulties in realizing the aims of the secondary-school library as reported by principals, librarians, and teacher-librarians. The term "adequate" should be defined for the various kinds of sizes of schools.

<sup>1</sup> All standards for high schools, including standards for libraries, are now being revised by the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards, which represents the six regional accrediting agencies of the United States.

VIII. *History of school libraries*

1. The history of the school-library movement for the most part lies buried in educational records. Someone should trace its rise and development and its relationship to significant movements in education.
2. Educational foundations have given considerable financial support to the school-library movement. A history of their influence and contributions would be significant.
3. The historical surveys of the development of school-library services in the various states are meager. More thoroughgoing studies are wanted.
4. Koos's study of state participation in public-school library support should be brought up to date.
5. There are indications that the library movement in the secondary schools may have received considerable impetus from the early private academies of New England. Interesting historical studies might be made of the rôle books and libraries played in these schools.

IX. *School library surveys*

1. The United States Office of Education receives reports on school libraries from all parts of the United States. A study of these, supplemented by other sources, should reveal the extent and quality of library service now being provided in the public schools of the country.
2. A thorough survey of library conditions in the private schools of the United States is needed as a basis for developing appropriate standards for private-school libraries.

X. *Foreign school-library studies*

1. Few studies have been made of library services in progressive European schools. An examination of administrative methods, book content, instruction, and reading-guidance techniques would be timely.

2. A study of school-library training in European countries would give a better perspective of American methods and bring to light attitudes and objectives helpful in the evaluation of our own system of education for librarianship.

#### RECENT STUDIES

Since 1930 about a hundred studies pertaining to school libraries have been made by students, associations, and research workers. The list of these which follows shows that the great majority of the studies which have been completed or are in process are in the form of Master's theses. Four have been accepted as doctoral dissertations. Comparatively few are regularly published studies. This limits considerably both the availability of the information to research workers and the spread of the results among those who administer or are responsible for school-library services in the field. An annual review and an abstract of all studies made in this field are urgently needed to relate research to the improvement of practice.

Students who wish to examine unpublished studies should make arrangements for interlibrary loans with the college or university library in which they are working. The United States Office of Education has a large lending collection of theses which is available to scholars throughout the country under customary interlibrary loan regulation.

To facilitate the location of studies they have been arranged under the following divisions: (1) Administration; (2) Certification; (3) Curriculum; (4) Demonstration school libraries; (5) Elementary school libraries; (6) Reading problems and materials; (7) Rural school libraries; (8) Secondary school libraries; and (9) Training for school librarianship.

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- DIGGS, EVA MARIE. *A critical survey of the rural school libraries of Lyon County, Kansas.* Master's, 1934. Kansas State Teachers College.
- GREER, MARGARET J. *An investigation of rural school libraries.* Master's, 1931. Iowa.
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ASSOCIATIONS AND ORGANIZATIONS ACTIVELY  
INTERESTED IN SCHOOL LIBRARIES

American Association of Teachers Colleges and the American Library Association. Joint Committee. Anita M. Hostetter, Secretary, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

American Library Association. Board of Education for Librarianship. Anita M. Hostetter, Secretary, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

- American Library Association. Board on Library Service to Children and Young People in Public Libraries and Schools. Mildred L. Batchelder, School Library Specialist, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.
- American Library Association. Committee on Co-operation with the National Education Association. Address, A.L.A., 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois, or N.E.A., 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.
- American Library Association. School Libraries Section. Chairman, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.
- Co-operative Committee on Secondary School Standards. Walter Crosby Eells, Co-ordinator, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.
- Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. George W. McClelland, Secretary, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- National Catholic Educational Association. Rev. George Johnson, Secretary, 1312 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C.
- National Congress of Parents and Teachers. William H. Bristow, General Secretary, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.
- National Council of Teachers of English. W. Wilbur Hatfield, Secretary, 211 West Sixty-eighth Street, Chicago, Illinois.
- National Education Association. Department of Elementary School Principals. Eva G. Pinkston, Executive Secretary, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.
- National Education Association. Department of Rural Education. Howard A. Dawson, Director of Rural Service, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.
- National Education Association. Department of Secondary School Principals. H. V. Church, Executive Secretary, 5835 Kimbark Ave., Chicago, Illinois.
- National Education Association. Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. Mary F. Hazell, Executive Secretary, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.
- New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. George S. Miller, Secretary, Tufts College, Massachusetts.
- North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. A. W. Clevenger, Secretary, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.
- Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools. Paul S. Filer, Secretary, 1322 Columbia Building, Spokane, Washington.
- Progressive Education Association. Frederick L. Redefers, Secretary, 310 W. Nintieth St., New York, New York.
- Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Guy E. Snively, Secretary, Birmingham Southern College, Birmingham, Alabama.
- United States Office of Education. Edith A. Lathrop, Associate Specialist in School Libraries, Washington, D.C.

The following organizations of school librarians are typical of those having programs for the study of their problems:

Connecticut School Library Association  
 High School Librarians Association of Metropolitan Detroit  
 Illinois Association of High School Librarians  
 New England School Library Association  
 New Jersey School Library Association  
 New York School Librarians Association  
 Pennsylvania Council of School Librarians  
 School Librarians Association of Philadelphia (Pennsylvania) and Vicinity  
 School Library Association of California.

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## NATIONALISM IN CHILDREN'S LITERATURE<sup>1</sup>

HELEN MARTIN

NATIONALISM is herein taken to mean the mass demand to be or to remain a state having equal status with other states.<sup>2</sup> Most governments are continually seeking to increase this demand. The methods they employ may be classed as direct and indirect. The indirect methods include the encouragement of national sports and domestic travel. The direct methods include the use of such mediums as publications, oratory, motion pictures, and radio. In what follows we are concerned with publications, and especially with children's literature, as a vehicle for nationalist influence.

Scientific analyses of nationalism began with the post-war studies of Hayes, Johannet, Van Gennep, and others. In general, one can say that the effectiveness of any means of increasing national pride and solidarity is conditioned by the degree to which the population consists of the same racial stock. The nationalist uses of children's literature have only recently been noticed.<sup>3</sup>

The study herein reported is an attempt to describe the nationalist influence of each of twenty-four children's books representing seventeen different countries.<sup>4</sup> The description is made as objective as possible by attention to the relative number of

<sup>1</sup> Unpublished Doctor's thesis, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1934.

<sup>2</sup> Harold D. Lasswell, *World politics and personal security* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1935), p. 94. See also Louis Wirth, "Types of nationalism," *American journal of sociology*, XLI (May, 1936), 723-37.

<sup>3</sup> See F. J. Harvey Darton, *Children's books in England* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1932); and Emma Wiecking, "France as depicted in literature for American children; with special reference to nationalism and internationalism," unpublished Master's thesis, School of Library Service, Columbia University, 1928.

<sup>4</sup> The seventeen nations are: Austria, Belgium, Canada, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Hungary, Ireland, Norway, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and the United States of America.

expressions in each book that are taken to imply nationalist sympathies on the part of the author. The description also takes account of the relative popularity of each book as determined by library circulation and bookstore sales in the various countries.

The twenty-four titles were selected according to the following seven specifications: (1) is translated into five or more languages; (2) belongs to one of the seventeen nations either in authorship or in subject matter; (3) is addressed primarily to children (there are three exceptions which represent books written for adults but adopted by children, namely, *Robinson Crusoe*, *Travels of Baron Munchausen*, and *The grandmother*); (4) covers a wide range of subjects, as in the conventional stories of home and school life, adventure, or as in animal and fairy tales; (5) is addressed to children of both sexes from six to fourteen years old; (6) meets a fair standard of literary and educational value; and (7) is intended rather to entertain than to instruct.

Despite the fact that Italy does not appear among the seventeen nations mentioned, two Italian books were chosen for analysis, namely, Amicis' *Heart* and Lorenzini's *Pinocchio*. Five books were classed according to the country described instead of the country of authorship. The *Travels of Baron Munchausen* was classed as German; *Wild animals I have known* and *Captains courageous* as American; and the *Story of Dr. Dolittle* and the *Prince and the pauper* as British. Rarely does an author master the symbolism of a foreign country to the extent that Kipling mastered the American in *Captains courageous* or Mark Twain the British in the *Prince and the pauper*. The selected titles appear in Table I.

To render the results more easily comparable only English translations were analyzed. Each text was chosen with reference to its completeness, its price (low price being preferred), and its inclusion in one or more standard catalogs of children's books.<sup>5</sup>

<sup>5</sup> Minnie Sears, *Children's catalog* (New York: H. W. Wilson, 1930).

The nationalist symbols that were counted in each title may be described as words and phrases expressing the individual's re-

TABLE I

SELECTED TITLES ARRANGED ACCORDING TO DATE OF PUBLICATION,  
COUNTRY OF AUTHORSHIP, AND TYPE OF LITERATURE

Author	Title	Country of Authorship	Date of Publication	Type
Alcott.....	<i>Little women</i>	United States	1868	Home
Amicis.....	<i>Heart</i>	Italy	1886	School
Anderson....	<i>Fairy tales</i>	Denmark	1835-72	Fairy tale; modern
Asbjornsen...	<i>Fairy tales from the Far North</i>	Norway	1842-45	Fairy tale; traditional
Clemens.....	<i>Adventures of Tom Sawyer</i>	United States	1875	Home
Clemens.....	<i>Prince and the pauper</i>	Great Britain	1881	Historical
Defoe.....	<i>Robinson Crusoe</i>	Great Britain	1719	Adventure
Dodgson.....	<i>Alice's adventures in Wonder- land</i>	Great Britain	1865	Fairy tale; modern
Grimm.....	<i>Household stories</i>	Germany	1812	Fairy tale; traditional
Kingsley.....	<i>Water-babies</i>	Great Britain	1863	Fairy tale; modern
Kipling.....	<i>Captains courageous</i>	United States	1897	Adventure
Kipling.....	<i>Jungle book</i>	Great Britain	1894	Animal
Kipling.....	<i>Just so stories</i>	Great Britain	1902	Fairy tale; modern
Lagerlöf....	<i>Wonderful adventures of Nils</i>	Sweden	1907	Fairy tale; modern
Lofting.....	<i>Story of Dr. Dolittle</i>	Great Britain	1920	Animal
Lorenzini....	<i>Pinocchio</i>	Italy	1882	Fairy tale; modern
Ľemčová....	<i>The grandmother</i>	Czechoslo- vakia	1855	Home
Raspe.....	<i>Tales from the travels of Baron Munchausen</i>	Germany	1785	Adventure
Ruskin.....	<i>King of the Golden River</i>	Great Britain	1851	Fairy tale; modern
Seton.....	<i>Wild animals I have known</i>	United States	1898	Animal
Sienkiewicz..	<i>In desert and wilderness</i>	Poland	1911	Adventure
Spyri.....	<i>Heidi</i>	Switzerland	1881	Home
Stevenson....	<i>Treasure Island</i>	Great Britain	1883	Adventure
Verne.....	<i>Twenty thousand leagues un- der the sea</i>	France	1869	Adventure

lationship to the predominant social and political pattern of the national life. To compare the twenty-four titles in terms of the

proportion of different sorts of symbols in each, it is first necessary, of course, to devise an appropriate scheme of classification. Unless the categories relate to distinguishable aspects of the national life and unless they differentiate nationalist from internationalist sympathies, they will not serve to characterize the symbols. No satisfactory categories have been defined by previous studies of nationalism in literature, though Van Gennep<sup>6</sup> has discussed in detail the more obvious symbolism of the flag, national costumes, language, and the frontier.

Since a classification scheme had to be devised without much benefit of earlier studies, it seemed best to consider only nouns and, more particularly, nouns denoting concrete objects rather than abstractions. The only abstract nouns admitted were those relating to warfare; for example, "captivity," "treachery," and "surrender."

The scheme finally devised consists of nine categories which together include some fifty-two subdivisions. The nine main headings with illustrative nouns for each are as follows:

1. Social and economic—e.g., church, tavern
2. Occupational—e.g., King (implying deference), policeman (implying security), merchant (implying economic prosperity)
3. Patriotic—e.g., flag, fatherland
4. Vernacular—e.g., "fit as a fiddle"
5. Geographic—e.g., Paris, New York
6. Personal—e.g., John, Johann, Jean, Jon
7. Nautical—e.g., Man-o'-wars-man
8. Animal—e.g., buffalo, boar, nightingale
9. Fictitious—e.g., pixy, troll, mermaid, giant

Each of the nine classes was subdivided, the subdivisions ranging from three in Class 3 to nine in Class 9. Class 6, "Personal," for instance, covers personal names (1) relating to the given nations, (2) foreign, and (3) fictitious or neutral. Class 4, "Vernacular," covers (1) idioms, (2) colloquialisms, (3) dialect, (4) proverbs, (5) faulty grammar, and (6) literary allusions. Subdivisions of the other classes are similarly logical from the

<sup>6</sup> Arnold Van Gennep, *Traité comparatif des nationalités* (Paris: Pavot et Cie, 1922-29).

standpoint of the child, and hence rather less logical than psychological from the standpoint of adult readers.

The symbols classed under the nine headings and the fifty-two subheadings were further indexed by one of four designations. Since the primary purpose of the study was to describe the extent to which each of the selected titles inclines the reader toward nationalism as against internationalism, it was necessary to index each symbol to show which of the two it tended to emphasize. The nouns with connotations favoring nationalism were indexed, and are hereinafter referred to, as "We" symbols. Those favoring internationalism were indexed as "They" symbols.

But references to any nation, whether the writer's own or some other, may, of course, be either favorable or unfavorable. Each symbol was accordingly further indexed to show whether its implication was pleasant or unpleasant. The pleasant implications were called positive, and the unpleasant were called negative.

In summary, then, the scheme of classification served to label each of the noun-symbols, first, according to their subject or literal meanings; second, according to whether they refer to the country of authorship or to a foreign nation; and, third, according to whether the reference is favorable or unfavorable.

The necessity, and hence the justification, for each of the three distinctions appears in so far as the relative popularity of each title among the child readers of any country can be explained by the frequency or infrequency of symbols in each category that present the nation of authorship as favorably as possible. A title which is very popular at home and not at all popular abroad would not appear in the twenty-four selected titles because foreign popularity as indicated by wide translation was one basis for selection. Another title very popular abroad but not much read at home might appear. The relation between the foreign popularity of such a title and its popularity at home can be largely explained by the ratio of nationalist to internationalist symbols.

When the symbols of each title had been thus analyzed and

classified, it was possible to check the validity of the nationalist emphasis in various ways. One of the more definite checks consisted in comparing the popularity indexes of the titles containing most references to fighting with the interest of each nation in military affairs, as indicated by its annual expenditure for national defense. The relative defense expenditures of the seventeen nations were obtained from the *World almanac*<sup>7</sup> and *Armaments yearbook*.<sup>8</sup> For the year during which the popularity indexes were obtained (1931-32), the data for fourteen of the seventeen nations cover (1) total population, (2) national wealth, and (3) the military expenditure per capita. The comparisons, on the whole, tend to support the hypothesis that the titles most concerned with warfare are most popular in the countries spending most money per capita for national defense.

But such comparisons, when based upon no more than fourteen cases and upon evidence of the titles' popularity in the various nations for a single year, are easily disputed. The foreign popularity of any title, without regard to its bellicose content, is, of course, affected by the quality of its translation into each foreign language. It is also affected by its relative accessibility to the child readers of each nation, as dependent upon the number of agencies per capita by which the book is distributed.

The comparison of popularity scores of the thirteen English titles in each of the foreign-language countries makes clear that popularity is less where the problems of translation are magnified by the scarcity of foreign equivalents for English symbols. In general, translation is seriously handicapped by dialect—witness the low popularity scores of *Captains courageous* and the *Prince and the pauper*, as against the high scores of the *Jungle book* and *Robinson Crusoe*, in which no dialect appears.

Wide differences in popularity (as measured by bookstore sales and library circulations) are also due to differences in the number of bookstores and libraries per capita. The seventeen nations show sufficiently wide variations in the number of such agencies to account for much of the national variation in the popularity scores.

<sup>7</sup> New York: Press Publishing Co., 1932.

<sup>8</sup> Geneva: League of Nations, 1933.

Table II supplies the popularity scores for reference to the foregoing statements. The fourteen Continental countries are

TABLE II  
POPULARITY SCORES FOR INDIVIDUAL TITLES

Type	Author	Title	United States	Canada	Great Britain	Europe	Composite
Adventure.....	Defoe	<i>Robinson Crusoe</i>	1.45	1.04	1.48	1.83	1.45
	Kipling	<i>Captains courageous</i>	0.56	0.49	0.50	0.75	0.57
	Raspe	<i>Tales from Baron Munchausen</i>	0.50	0.59	0.09	1.18	0.56
	Sienkiewicz	<i>In desert and wilderness</i>	0.52	0.55	0.03	0.42	0.38
	Stevenson	<i>Treasure Island</i>	1.22	1.58	1.46	1.34	1.40
	Verne	<i>Twenty thousand leagues under the sea</i>	1.01	1.10	0.51	1.34	0.99
Home.....	Alcott	<i>Little women</i>	1.19	0.57	0.79	0.51	0.78
	Clemens	<i>Tom Sawyer</i>	1.57	1.78	1.08	1.46	1.47
	Řemřovř	<i>The grandmother</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.19	0.04
	Spyri	<i>Heidi</i>	1.39	1.37	0.64	1.19	1.14
Animal.....	Kipling	<i>Jungle book</i>	1.31	1.54	1.71	1.65	1.55
	Lofting	<i>Story of Dr. Dolittle</i>	1.94	1.75	1.52	0.96	1.46
	Seton	<i>Wild animals I have known</i>	0.56	1.00	0.62	1.45	0.90
Fairy tale: traditional.....	Asbjornsen	<i>Fairy tales from the Far North</i>	0.77	1.21	0.21	0.27	0.66
	Grimm	<i>Household stories</i>	1.48	1.47	1.55	1.83	1.58
Fairy tale: modern.....	Anderson	<i>Fairy tales</i>	1.52	1.34	1.46	1.49	1.45
	Dodgson	<i>Alice in Wonderland</i>	1.40	1.02	1.22	0.42	1.01
	Kingsley	<i>Water-babies</i>	0.56	1.08	1.36	0.10	0.77
	Kipling	<i>Just so stories</i>	1.53	1.48	1.56	0.83	1.15
	Lagerlřf	<i>Wonderful adventures of Nils</i>	0.82	0.60	0.15	1.19	0.69
	Lorenzini	<i>Pinocchio</i>	1.91	1.73	0.38	1.06	1.27
	Ruskin	<i>King of the Golden River</i>	0.82	0.91	0.66	0.12	0.62
Historical.....	Clemens	<i>Prince and the pauper</i>	1.05	1.04	0.50	1.07	0.94
School.....	Amicis	<i>Heart</i>	0.54	0.00	0.00	0.91	0.38

combined to simplify comparison with English-speaking countries.

Despite effects upon the popularity scores of factors other



than the emphasis of nationalist sympathies, the fact remains that the nationalist emphasis is important. The unpopularity of American titles abroad may, for example, be explained by the fact that the British and European titles contain about the same number of "We" symbols (about 7 per cent), whereas the

TABLE III  
POPULARITY SCORES AND NATIONALIST EMPHASIS

Title	Composite Popularity Score	Rank	Nationalist Emphasis	Rank
<i>Household stories</i> .....	1.58	1	2.9	20
<i>Jungle book</i> .....	1.55	2	4.2	19
<i>Tom Sawyer</i> .....	1.47	3	12.8	10
<i>Story of Dr. Dolittle</i> .....	1.46	4	2.5	21
<i>Fairy tales (Anderson)</i> .....	1.45	5.5	7.7	14
<i>Robinson Crusoe</i> .....	1.45	5.5	7.1	15
<i>Treasure Island</i> .....	1.40	7	11.3	12
<i>Pinocchio</i> .....	1.27	8	2.2	22
<i>Just so stories</i> .....	1.15	9	5.1	18
<i>Heidi</i> .....	1.14	10	11.3	12
<i>Alice in Wonderland</i> .....	1.01	11	13.9	7
<i>Twenty thousand leagues under the sea</i> .....	0.99	12	5.3	17
<i>Prince and the pauper</i> .....	0.94	13	17.0	3
<i>Wild animals I have known</i> .....	0.90	14	13.7	8
<i>Water-babies</i> .....	0.77	15	18.8	1
<i>Little women</i> .....	0.76	16	13.6	9
<i>Wonderful adventures of Nils</i> .....	0.69	17	15.7	5
<i>Fairy tales from the Far North</i> .....	0.66	18	5.8	16
<i>King of the Golden River</i> .....	0.62	19	1.4	23
<i>Captains courageous</i> .....	0.57	20	16.7	4
<i>Tales from Baron Munchausen</i> .....	0.56	21	1.1	24
<i>In desert and wilderness</i> .....	0.38	22	12.4	11
<i>Heart</i> .....	0.36	23	17.4	2
<i>The grandmother</i> .....	0.04	24	14.5	6

American titles contain about twice as many (13.7 per cent). Table III compares nationalist emphasis with popularity scores.

A rank-order correlation of the ranks for popularity and for nationalist emphasis ( $R = -31 \pm .16$ ) is sufficiently negative to argue against the long-run popularity in foreign countries of any children's book in which the nationalist emphasis is strong. That the correlation is not more highly negative is explained by the other factors of popularity which cannot be controlled in so

small a sample. In addition to those already named, the "other" factors naturally include the elusive tendency of any title to be more "foreign" to some foreign nations than to others because of qualities that are not fully covered by the nationalist symbols identified. If due allowance is made for the presence of such other influences, the facts contained in Table III deserve careful analysis and should stimulate further effort toward more complete identification of the factors determining the popularity of children's books in foreign countries.

TABLE IV  
MEDIAN PERCENTAGES OF SYMBOLS OF EACH TYPE IN  
TITLES CLASSED BY NATIONAL GROUPS

COUNTRY OF AUTHORSHIP	NUM- BER OF TITLES	TYPES OF SYMBOLS								
		Social and Eco- nomic	Occu- pational	Patri- otic	Vernac- ular	Geo- graphic	Per- sonal	Nau- tical	Animal	Fic- titious
American..	4	48.9	5.95	15.4	0.25	6.4	6.85	5.0	3.4	.09
British....	9	44.6	4.8	18.5	.....	5.0	3.5	4.1	12.7	.09
European..	11	50.7	6.9	14.2	0.2	5.4	4.1	2.8	8.2	1.1
Median	.....	47.55	5.75	15.1	0.2	5.55	4.2	3.3	7.85	1.05

The relationship between foreign popularity and nationalist emphasis being what it is, we may next examine certain conditions affecting the publication of children's literature in the search for a better understanding of the relationship as shown by analysis of the twenty-four titles.

One such condition may be described as a tendency for the writers of children's books to express their patriotism by symbols of the same type. It will be recalled that the nouns and noun-phrases of each title were classed according to nine distinguishable types, as listed on page 408. Table IV is of interest in this connection. It shows the percentage of symbols in each title which were classed as belonging to each of the nine types.

On the whole, the table shows a striking uniformity in the patterns of each national group. The eleven European titles have exactly the same median pattern as the British, though the

emphasis varies slightly among the nine types. So far as they go, the comparisons demonstrate the uniform symbolism of children's literature to the extent that the uniformity is not an artificial result of the scheme of classification employed.

It is not likely that the consistency, that is, the accuracy or the reliability, of the classification is at fault, however much the categories might have been improved. The reliability of the classification was checked by correlation. The symbols selected from each title were divided in half, at random, and the number of each half that had been previously classed under each of the nine headings was correlated with the number of the other half so classified. The coefficients, with one exception, are high enough to rule out serious errors due to classification. The exception is the *Travels of Baron Munchausen*, for which the coefficient is only 0.54, a degree of unreliability unexplained by any evidence beyond the fact that the edition was an abridgment, and hence the number of symbols belonging to each class may have been too few to eliminate errors due solely to chance. The coefficients for all other titles range from  $0.99 \pm .009$ , for *Little women* and seven other titles, to  $0.89 \pm .049$  for the *King of the Golden River*.

Another condition affecting the nationalist emphasis in any children's book is, of course, the extent to which nationalism was felt by the nation at large when the book was written. It is therefore important to classify the titles according to the emphasis upon nationalism (or the aversion to internationalism) at the time each title was published.

Taken together, the twenty-four titles yielded 25,550 classifiable symbols—slightly more than one thousand per title. There were 13,531 different symbols classified. Yet of this number only 22 per cent were "We" symbols, meaning that only this proportion referred directly to nationalist associations. And of the relatively small proportion thus classed as nationalist, a still smaller proportion was classed as patriotic, i.e., nationalist symbols that were complimentary to the nation concerned.

It is a clear certainty that the number and percentage of such symbols, in the case of any one book, are affected to some extent

by the social, economic, and political tensions in the nation during the time the book was written. It is also a fact beyond the need of argument that such tensions stimulate national loyalties at the expense of what may be termed "international" loyalties. It is further plain that tensions are greater in times of economic and political crises than at other times.

For these reasons it seemed relevant to the discussion of nationalist emphasis in children's literature to determine the states of social tension prevailing in each country of authorship at the time each of our twenty-four titles was being composed. To facilitate presentation, the various degrees of social tension are classed as "precrisis," "crisis," or "postcrisis" states. This classification has the benefits of chronology and is obviously applicable to all countries. The results of this analysis appear in Table V.

It is plain from Table V that the largest proportion of nationalist symbols appears in the eleven titles published during postcrisis periods, a fact easily explained by the time-lag between the inspiration and the execution of a work of fiction. The nine titles published during periods of actual crisis contain a smaller proportion of nationalist symbols, and the four published during precrisis periods contain fewest of all. The table thus establishes the tendency for books heavy with nationalist emphasis to be written under the influence of national tensions or (witness the American titles) in countries that are relatively more nationalistic because of a geographical isolation which discourages international sympathies.

The foregoing paragraph suggests the question: How is the total publication of books for children affected by differences in national tension? Some evidence is shown in Table VI, which dates the number of children's books published during the period from 1750 to 1879. This period of a century and a quarter witnessed not only the rise of nationalism in existing states but also the development of a children's literature as such. The table shows that there is a positive relation between national tensions, as represented by crisis periods, and the number of children's books published. The four decades, 1820-59,

furnish the clearest illustration of the trend. The first two decades, 1820-39, were "postcrisis" in all four national groups and produced the largest number of children's books in Great Brit-

TABLE V  
NATIONALIST EMPHASIS IN RELATION TO NATIONAL MOVEMENTS

Type of Decade	Year	Title	Country	Nationalist Emphasis
Precrisis.....	1785	<i>Baron Munchausen</i>	Germany	1.1
	1869	<i>Twenty thousand leagues under the sea</i>	France	5.3
	1894	<i>Jungle book</i>	Great Britain	4.2
	1897	<i>Captains courageous</i>	United States	16.7
Crisis.....	1812	<i>Grimm's Household stories</i>	Germany	2.9
	1835	<i>Andersen's Fairy tales</i>	Denmark	7.7
	1868	<i>Little women</i>	United States	13.6
	1883	<i>Treasure Island</i>	Great Britain	11.3
	1898	<i>Wild animals I have known</i>	United States	13.7
	1902	<i>Just so stories</i>	Great Britain	5.1
	1907	<i>Wonderful adventures of Nils</i>	Sweden	15.4
	1911	<i>In desert and wilderness</i>	Poland	12.4
Postcrisis.....	1920	<i>Story of Dr. Dolittle</i>	Great Britain	2.5
	1719	<i>Robinson Crusoe</i>	Great Britain	7.1
	1842	<i>Fairy tales from the Far North</i>	Norway	5.8
	1851	<i>King of the Golden River</i>	Great Britain	1.4
	1855	<i>The grandmother</i>	Czechoslovakia	14.5
	1863	<i>Water-babies</i>	Great Britain	18.8
	1865	<i>Alice in Wonderland</i>	Great Britain	13.9
	1875	<i>Tom Sawyer</i>	United States	12.8
	1881	<i>Heidi</i>	Switzerland	11.3
	1881	<i>Prince and the pauper</i>	Great Britain	17.0
	1882	<i>Pinocchio</i>	Italy	2.2
	1886	<i>Heart</i>	Italy	17.5

ain and in the United States. The next two were "postcrisis" for France and "postcrisis" and "crisis" for Germany. These decades likewise saw the largest production of children's books in both countries. The largest publication of children's books in Germany occurred during the so-called "postcrisis" decade of 1870-79, which included the Franco-Prussian War. Despite the cursory analysis necessitated by this brief résumé of the

data reported in the original study, it appears that the economic and political tensions of a nation affect the production of children's literature both qualitatively (see Table V) and quantitatively (see Table VI).

TABLE VI  
BOOK PRODUCTION FOR CHILDREN IN RELATION TO NATIONAL MOVEMENTS

DECADE	GREAT BRITAIN		FRANCE		GERMANY		UNITED STATES		TOTAL
	Type*	Percent- age of Titles	Type	Percent- age of Titles	Type	Percent- age of Titles	Type	Percent- age of Titles	
1750-59.....	C	0.6	Po	0.4	Po	0.8	C	0.7	0.5
1760-69.....	Po	0.9	C	0.3	Po	1.0	C	2.2	0.9
1770-79.....	C	0.8	Po	0.7	Po	4.1	C	2.6	1.4
1780-89.....	Po	4.5	Pr	2.1	Po	4.7	C	5.9	3.7
1790-99.....	C	5.5	C	1.5	C	2.4	Po	12.0	4.3
1800-1809.....	C	3.8	Po	3.5	C	3.8	Po	17.9	5.7
1810-19.....	Po	19.2	Po	6.7	C	5.5	C	20.5	12.3
1820-29.....	Po	23.3	Po	15.5	Po	4.4	Po	18.4	17.0
1830-39.....	Po	15.5	Po	13.2	Po	8.5	Po	11.4	13.1
1840-49.....	Pr	9.6	Po	20.9	Po	14.8	Po	4.6	14.4
1850-59.....	C	9.6	Po	22.8	C	16.1	Pr	2.0	15.0
1860-69.....	Po	5.1	Pr	9.6	C	14.3	C	1.3	7.6
1870-79.....	Po	1.6	C	2.8	Po	19.6	Po	0.5	4.1
Total.....		100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	100.0

\* Pr = precrisis; C = crisis; Po = postcrisis.

The following remarks are offered by way of summary:

1. The chance that any children's book may find an international market is considerably increased by a small proportion (i.e., less than one-tenth) of "nationalist symbols." Nationalist symbols are words or phrases considered patriotic by the inhabitants of the country in which or of which the book is written.
2. Expressions of hostility toward a foreign nation will correspondingly restrict the popularity of a children's book in the nation criticized.
3. War books for children are most popular in the foreign countries making largest expenditures for national defense.

4. The children's book with the best expectation of a wide foreign market will deal mainly with social and economic situations, and next with situations rich in patriotic symbols. Beyond this point the data are not clear.

5. In order of relative popularity, the types of children's fiction herein described are: first, the fairy tale; second, the animal story; and, third, the stories of adventure. The "home story" tends to be the most nationalistic of all six types.

6. Dialect renders a children's book unpopular abroad.

7. Children's books produced in Great Britain have won greater popularity in foreign countries than the books produced in Continental countries, in Canada, or in the United States.

In conclusion, the reader is asked to regard this article as a highly selective account of the data examined in a single study confined to a period of two years.<sup>9</sup> Its importance will be found in the degree to which it inspires other students to seek a more adequate description of the popular book for children.

Publishers, especially, should be encouraged to define more closely the factors which in combination are shown to command the international market. Authors should be interested in the fact that intimate description of national life must be couched in something like an international vocabulary if the book is to pass beyond the frontiers of the country which produced it. And the distributors of children's books—librarians, book-dealers, and educational authorities—should be aided by the fact that an excessive reference to the enthusiasms and loyalties peculiar to the country of authorship will preclude the foreign popularity of most books for children.

Taken together, the efforts of the several groups to whom the problem should have more than academic interest should in due course evolve a pattern, at least a vocabulary, by which the author's genius may be guided toward its largest international influence.

<sup>9</sup> See footnote 1.



## THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

FREMONT RIDER, librarian of the Olin Memorial Library, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut, was born in 1885 in Trenton, New Jersey. Although Mr. Rider has devoted the greater part of his career to publishing and editing, his first professional experience was in library work. At the age of thirteen he served as an assistant in the circulation department of the Middletown Public Library. Two years later he spent the summer working in the Syracuse Public Library. Mr. Rider graduated with a Ph.B. from Syracuse University in 1905 and spent the following year attending the New York State Library School. He left library school to become associate editor of the *Delineator* in 1907.

From 1907 to 1933 Mr. Rider held numerous editorial positions. In 1909 he joined the staff of B. W. Dodge and Company; later he worked with R. R. Bowker Company, and since 1914 he has been president of the Rider Press, Inc. During these years he edited the following publications: *New idea women's magazine* (1908-9); *Monthly book review* (1909-17); *Publishers' weekly* (1910-17); *Library journal* (1914-17); *Information* (1915-18); *Business digest* (1917-21). In 1915 he founded the *International military digest*.

Mr. Rider is the author of *Songs of Syracuse* (1905), *The bringing in of the Almeria* (1920), and *Between seven and eight, and other vaudville and dramatic sketches*, and the compiler of *Are the dead alive?* (1909), *Tentative system of subject headings for military science* (1922), *Tentative decimal classification and system of subject headings for the literature of business* (1924), as well as the editor of a series of guidebooks and a frequent contributor to periodicals.

HELEN MARTIN ROOD was born in Oberlin, Ohio. She graduated from Oberlin College in 1911 and received her Master's degree there in 1913. In 1915 she was granted a diploma by the Carnegie Library School, Carnegie Institute of Technology. She has served as children's librarian in the Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh, 1914-16; in the New London (Ohio) Township Library, 1916-17; in the Somerville (Massachusetts) Public Library, 1917-18; and in the East Cleveland Public Library, 1918-25. Since 1925 she has been an assistant professor in the School of Library Science, Western Reserve University.

In 1921 Miss Martin was awarded a Johnston fellowship at Oberlin College to enable her to make a study of the Elizabethan period of history at Oxford, and in 1931 was given a Carnegie Corporation grant-in-aid for an investigation of children's reading in Europe. She entered the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago and carried on her research under the School's direction. Her article, "Nationalism in children's literature," which appears in this issue of the *Library quarterly*, is a part of her doctoral dissertation.

Miss Martin is the author of *Children's preferences in book illustration* (1931) and the editor of *Aunt Jo's scrap book* by Louisa M. Alcott (1929). She was married in the summer of 1935 to Mr. Allan Rood and is at present living in Cleveland, Ohio.

ELEANOR M. WITMER, librarian, Teachers College, Columbia University, is the member of the 1934-35 Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association responsible for formulating its report, "School library studies and research," which is published in this issue of the *Library quarterly*. Miss Anna Clark Kennedy, supervisor of school libraries, New York State Education Department, served as chairman of the 1934-35 Joint Committee and was assisted by the following members: Mildred L. Batchelder, school library specialist, American Library Association; M. Gertrude Blanchard, dean of women and librarian, Duquesne University; William H. Bristow, at that time deputy superintendent, Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction; Annie Spencer Cutter, director, Schools Department, Cleveland Public Library; Edith A. Lathrop, associate specialist in school libraries, United States Office of Education; Margaret M. Ross, supervisor, Department of School Libraries, Wilmington Public Schools; Irvin H. Schmidt, superintendent of schools, Sac City, Iowa; Sabra W. Vought, senior librarian and director of libraries, United States Office of Education, and Eleanor M. Witmer.

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#### THE COVER DESIGN

JOHN RASTELL sprang from a good Warwickshire family. He was born about 1475 and was educated for the law (in all probability at the Middle Temple). On or before 1504 he married Elizabeth, the sister of Sir Thomas More. In 1516/17 he organized an expedition to the New World, but before his ship had gone any distance the master and crew, after first attempting to induce Rastell to "fall to robbing upon the sea," set him ashore at Waterford and then

took the ship to Bordeaux where they sold the cargo. This unfortunate voyage, however, was but an interlude in a busy life as lawyer, author, statesman, and printer. The latter activity only interests us here.

Rastell began printing in the churchyard of St. Paul's perhaps as early as 1514 and, despite interruptions such as the unsuccessful and financially disastrous expedition, he continued in the trade until 1530 and perhaps as late as 1533. He printed more than forty books. They include many treatises on the law, such as Fitzherbert's *Grand abridgement*, Littleton's *Tenures*, Rastell's own *Abridgement of the statutes* and his *Expositiones terminorum legum Anglorum*, and a few works on religion, such as the *Sum of Holy Scripture*, Harrington's *Commendations of matrimony*, More's *Dialogue of images*, and his own *New book of Purgatory*, but he is best known as a publisher of literary works. He printed a few editions of the classic authors and Linacre's famous Latin grammar, as well as a few of the earlier vernacular works, such as Chaucer's *Assembly of fowls* and *The hundred merry tales*, but most important of all are his editions of contemporary literature, among them Walter Smith's coarse but humorous *Twelve jests of the widow Edith* (no longer extant), his own works, *The interlude of women*, *The interlude of the four elements*, *The dialogue of gentleness and nobility* (formerly ascribed to his son-in-law, John Heywood), and *The pastime of the people* and possibly Skelton's *Magnificence*.

Rastell was elected to Parliament in 1529. He engaged in the religious controversy of his time, first on the side of his brother-in-law, Thomas More, but later on the side of Cromwell and the reformers. Because of the demands on his time and energy made by his zeal for the reformed faith and by his own litigious habits, both his legal practice and his printing business declined during his later years. He finally died, probably in prison, during the spring of 1536. He was succeeded in his printing business by his son, William.

One of John Rastell's two marks is reproduced on the cover. It depicts God in the act of creation. Below is the sky with the seven planets and the world with the four elements. From the watery element rises a merman and a mermaid, holding the printer's monogram. (The mermaid was Rastell's house sign.) Under the figure of the Creator is the motto "*Fiat.*" In the two upper corners are the royal arms and the badge of the Prince of Wales, betokening, no doubt, England's hope during the earlier years of the reign of Henry VIII for the birth of an heir to the throne. Below is the printer's name.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

## REVIEWS

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*County library service in the South. A study of the Rosenwald County Library Demonstration.* By LOUIS R. WILSON and EDWARD A. WIGHT. ("University of Chicago studies in library science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. Pp. xv+259. \$2.00.

A certain timeliness attaches to a review of this study of the Rosenwald County Library Demonstration in the South at the beginning of another fall and winter season of library activities. This book is one of three which will be drawn upon heavily during the immediate future in the formulation and revision of plans for library development in the southern states. This significant work, together with *Libraries of the South* by Tommie Dora Barker and *Southern regions* by Howard W. Odum, will furnish the road signs for library progress in the South during the next decade at least. The importance of all three works is enhanced by the fact that this area has lost the benefit of a southern regional field agent of the American Library Association at a time when improved economic conditions give promise of new and increasing library development. Lacking the counsel and guidance of a field worker, librarians will resort to the literature of progress for direction. In this literature *County library service in the South* will occupy a most important place.

The book is a critical and evaluative study of the results of the eleven county library demonstrations carried on from 1930 to 1935 in seven southern states. This experiment was made possible by a grant of approximately \$500,000 from the Julius Rosenwald Fund. The work is a product of the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. The School was asked "to review the activities of the libraries, evaluate their achievements, and offer suggestions which, in the light of the experience gained, might prove of value in plans for future library development in the area" (Preface). Louis R. Wilson, dean of the School, directed the study. Edward A. Wight, a research assistant, conducted the special investigations and analyses. Both visited the demonstration libraries, and they collaborated in drafting the report.

The product is more than an analysis of the eleven demonstration county libraries. It resolves the whole problem of rural library extension in the South, with significant reference to the economic and social background of the region. The importance of the work may be epitomized in saying that it offers prime help in dealing with three major library problems confronting the South, namely, rural public-library extension, relation of public- and school-library service, and library service to Negroes. Substantial help is also given for deal-

ing with three additional problems of equal importance: library legislation, raising the standards of library personnel, and promotion of citizen interest in library development.

In the opinion of the reviewer, four chapters of the book should be read by everyone interested in library promotion in the South: chapter i, "Southern background"; vii, "Co-operation of the public library and the school"; ix, "Regional and state developments"; and x, "Conclusions and recommendations." Chapter i is an admirable digest of Odum's *Southern regions*, with stimulating application to the library scene. Chapter ix is about all that need be said on the regional plan, that is, the plan of extending library service on the basis of regions larger than counties. This chapter includes outlines of significant regional plans proposed or in operation outside of the South, notably in California, New Jersey, British Columbia, and England.

The other two chapters are self-explanatory. That on co-operation with schools is very well done and as applicable to other sections of the country as it is to the South. The conclusions represent a brief summary of the body of the book, and the recommendations are divided into three sections—"those relating to the co-operation of interested agencies throughout the southern region, those most applicable to the programs of individual southern states, and those relating to the administration of individual libraries."

The remaining chapters of the book are of relatively less importance. Dealing with the organization, administration, finances, and use of the demonstration libraries, they represent a careful and scholarly fulfilment of the charge on the Graduate Library School "to review the activities of the libraries and evaluate their achievements." Some threescore tables, charts, etc., are employed, most of them statistical tabulations. To the reviewer these chapters were frankly tedious and largely unprofitable reading. Representing, as they do, so many special investigations involving complex and meticulous paper work, they all too frequently produce obvious or well-known conclusions; sometimes the conclusions seem extraneous, and occasionally the findings are admitted to prove nothing. Much of this analytical data might well have been relegated to some dark file for reference by the rare courageous research student, if for no other reason than to avoid discouraging the many less courageous plebeian readers, like the reviewer, who might never get to chapter vii, for example, without the compulsion of a reviewer's obligation. It may be said in extenuation that these analytical studies do bring objective evidence to substantiate many views or opinions heretofore unsupported by such evidence, and they do suggest techniques for the study of library administration and library use.

The authors recognize two factors which must be taken into account in any attempt to evaluate the results of the Rosenwald County Library Demonstration. In the first place, the project was set up rather hurriedly without proper provision at the beginning for the accumulation of data necessary for

the evaluation of results. In the second place, the depression precipitated financial difficulties which imposed abnormal handicaps and threatened a successful demonstration altogether. The authors are to be commended on making the most of inadequate data and on devising and producing original data to offset the deficiency. The libraries selected to participate in the demonstration are to be congratulated on their ability to weather so successfully the storm of depression.

The experience of the demonstration libraries and the report itself bear ample testimony to the value of grants-in-aid from foundations and the obvious necessity of state aid in rendering possible library extension in the South.

The book has an Appendix containing (1) forms of contracts used in the demonstration libraries involving city and county governmental units and boards of education (2) "equivalents for high-school library service supplied wholly or in part by the public library," as adopted in 1934 by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and (3) a useful Bibliography of five pages. A satisfactory Index is also included.

Significant and far-reaching library developments can be expected in the South in the immediate future. In these the present work will exert a strong and salutary influence.

HAROLD F. BRIGHAM

*Free Public Library*  
*Louisville, Kentucky*

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*Preparation for school library work.* By LUCILE F. FARGO. ("Columbia University studies in library service," No. 3.) New York: Columbia University Press, 1936. Pp. vii+[iii]+190+[1]. \$3.00.

Miss Fargo's experience as a school librarian, as a member of the faculty of a library school whose purpose is the training of school librarians, as the author of *The library in the school* and, more recently, as research assistant at the School of Library Service, Columbia University, has given her a good background for the writing of a book in this field.

The present book, the third in the "Columbia University studies in library science," deals with three phases of the question of preparation for school librarianship. The first part considers the positions open to the school librarian, analyzes her functions in the school, and compares these functions with those of the teacher. The second part sets forth the factors to be taken into account in planning the training of the school librarian: school library standards, certification, professional migration, professional backgrounds, and the consolidation of school and library units. The last part of the book suggests a revised program for this preparation, dividing the needed types of training into that for the full-time school librarian and that for the teacher-librarian, with courses for the school teacher and administrator.

In her opening chapter Miss Fargo points out the types of school library positions for which preparation is necessary. These range from the part-time

elementary-school librarian through the teacher-librarian in the junior and senior high school to the full-time school librarian and even to the supervisor of a city or state system of school libraries. She emphasizes the necessity for a thorough knowledge of the workings of the public library on the part of the school librarian and also the need for a thorough understanding of school problems on the part of the public librarian.

Then follows a composite analysis of the functions of the school librarian, using data from several studies which have been made in that field. An accompanying table gives a comparison of the duties of the librarian and of the teacher. The question is raised as to whether or not there are two types of library service in the school; the one putting library work first and the other emphasizing the teaching functions.

Next, the standards of the accrediting agencies are analyzed and discussed. There is a table showing each state's requirements for certification of school librarians in the fields both of education and of library science. Miss Fargo calls especial attention to the fact that fifteen semester hours in education seem to be the average requirement for the school librarian and urges that library-training agencies take this into account in accepting candidates for the courses preparing for school librarianship.

In the chapter on professional migration three questions are discussed: To what extent do trained school librarians shift from one level of service to another, that is, from elementary to junior or senior high school, or vice versa? To what extent do trained librarians shift from public to school library work or from school to public library work? To what extent do part-time or teacher-librarians tend to become full-time school librarians? Miss Fargo's questionnaires on these subjects brought in such conflicting answers that she merely concludes that in general the training of the high-school librarian should be broad enough to include work in the junior high school, the elementary school, and the junior college, since it seems to be not an uncommon practice for her to extend her services in all of these directions. She concludes, also, that there is little advancement from teacher-librarian to full-time work.

In the chapter on professional backgrounds, Miss Fargo states that a broad cultural background and an understanding of the school and its problems are essential for the school librarian. She emphasizes the trend toward consolidation and centralization both in school work and in library work, bringing out the probable effect of county library systems on school library work and the possibilities of service from the public library of the large city.

Next is given a brief history of library training, showing the three phases through which it has passed: first, the apprentice era; second, the era of technique; and, third, the era of professional training. The growth of the curriculum for school librarians is reviewed, beginning with the Williamson report of 1923, followed by the recommendations of the Board of Education for Librarianship and the subsequent springing up of school-library training agencies throughout the country.



In the chapter on specialization, Miss Fargo presents her ideas as to the grading and arranging of curricula for the preparation of school librarians and follows this with a chapter on education for the teacher-librarian. As a study on the latter topic is now under way, the conclusions from this chapter might be considered as incomplete awaiting the final study.

As a background for studying the preparation of school librarians this is a most suggestive piece of work. The first two parts, in which we have conclusions based on data collected for the purpose, are more useful than the last. It is unfortunate, however, that even here the data does not always seem sufficiently representative or inclusive enough for drawing very definite conclusions. For instance, in concluding that the teacher-librarian does not tend to evolve into the full-time librarian, sufficient stress was not placed on answers from those agencies whose special function is the training of school librarians. Moreover, this tendency toward promotion is probably more prevalent in certain sections of the country than in others, and this fact is not brought out.

Again, it is to be regretted that sometimes all of the implications of a proposition are not clearly presented or followed through. In the study of the professional background and specialization of the school librarian emphasis is placed on the necessity for a broad cultural foundation, and quite properly so; but no mention is made of the fact that in the specialized library school of today about half of the required courses might be termed "book courses" and about half "technical courses." This means that this necessary cultural background is being supplied to some extent, at least, after the student has entered on her professional training.

In the short space of less than 200 pages, Miss Fargo has gathered together a mass of material which should be of interest not only to those who are training school librarians but to all who are planning courses or building curricula for the prospective librarian in any field.

CHARLES H. STONE

*College of William and Mary*

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*Portrait of a library. To help trustees and students of library work understand the administrative problems of libraries.* By MARGERY CLOSEY QUIGLEY and WILLIAM ELDER MARCUS. New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1936. Pp. xi+190+[1]. \$2.00.

Outstanding in any tabulation of American public-library statistics are the libraries of the better-class suburban cities in the 35,000 to 100,000 population group. As the student of library administration scans the "expenditure per capita" column for this group of libraries in the statistics published annually by the American Library Association, he discovers that almost all the libraries showing amounts of one dollar or more per capita are found in suburban cities of this type. So also for the highest figures in the columns showing cir-

ulation per capita and the percentage of total population registered as library borrowers. The people of these cities are accustomed to paying well for the municipal services they desire, and the public library seems no exception to the general rule.

Precisely what competent library service may mean in a particular suburban city of this class—Montclair, New Jersey, population 42,000—is thoroughly and interestingly described by Margery C. Quigley and William E. Marcus in a compact and well-designed volume of eight chapters and an Appendix, entitled *Portrait of a library*. The authors are respectively librarian and president of the board of trustees of the Free Public Library of Montclair. Doubtless librarians will constitute the primary audience of this book, but its interesting style and attractive format will cause it to appeal almost equally to library trustees, to city administrators, and to many citizens who are interested in the improved functioning of their municipal government. In a simple, straightforward manner the authors describe the efforts of this public library to satisfy what they consider to be its three fundamental obligations: to provide satisfactory library facilities to schools, to function with speed, and to furnish adequate information service. In the opinion of the authors the essential genius of the suburban library lies in the development of its ability to emphasize these three elements in its service. Careful study of the community and of its sources of book supply has enabled the library to concentrate on those particular services which it seems best able to furnish. As a result of this study, the library has been able to define its major objectives rather carefully.

The volume under review is of special interest because of the light it throws on two questions of timely interest to many librarians. As a testing laboratory for the possibilities of co-operation among libraries in a suburban area, the record of Montclair is of much importance. The public library in this city has made a consistent and intelligent effort to relate its services to those of other libraries in the town, to the libraries of its immediate neighbors, and to the libraries of New York. The difficulties of co-operation, as well as its successes, are analyzed with much discriminating detail.

A second topic of current interest is the full treatment by the authors of the administrative considerations involved in the relations of the board of library trustees to the librarian, the library staff, and the city government. Here is one library which has brought this difficult problem of board control frankly into the open and which has formulated a clear and definite program intended to capitalize its advantages and to minimize its dangers. The decisions reached in Montclair may be studied with profit by library-board members and by librarians in many cities and towns.

The *Portrait of a library* is by no means a complete monograph on public-library administration. It is rather a case study of the work of a well-administered library in a fortunately situated suburban community. As such, it

should prove stimulating reading to librarians and friends of libraries. A valuable Appendix of "library documents" provides concrete administrative facts relating to the policies of the library, its budget, and its staff.

CARLETON B. JOECKEL

Graduate Library School  
University of Chicago

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*The library of the future.* By B. M. HEADICAR. ("Practical library handbooks," No. 1.) London: George Allen & Unwin, 1936. Pp. 122. 5s. (\$1.30, postpaid, if copies are delivered direct from London through H. W. Wilson Co.; \$1.45, postpaid, if copies are filled from H. W. Wilson Co. stock.)

*The library of the future*, by B. M. Headicar, librarian of the London School of Economics, 1900-1935, has been issued as Volume I in the "Practical library handbook" series recently inaugurated by George Allen and Unwin Ltd. The 122 pages are devoted to brief discussions of present English library situations. Among the most notable papers in the collection are those concerned with the co-ordination of twenty-eight public borough libraries of London, the proposal to place local public libraries under a central governmental authority, the provision of special collections of business and commercial materials in connection with public libraries, and building plans and equipment of English libraries in the future. Mr. Headicar finds no cause for alarm in the proposal to bring public libraries under an effective system of control and inspection, and, unlike many of his British colleagues, feels that certain distinct advantages are to be secured as a result of such procedure. The most extended discussion in the volume is that which deals with future library buildings. In the chapter devoted to this subject Mr. Headicar assumes the rôle of an "advocate for buildings adequate to meet all requirements, more comfortable and decorative, better lighted and ventilated and in every way an improvement on those already in existence."

The intention of the publishers in issuing this new series of Handbooks is well illustrated by the first volume. The volumes are intended to supplement the Library Association "Series of library manuals"—full-length presentations of major library subjects. They are to deal with a number of subjects which require incidental treatment and which can best be presented in brief essay form. In this volume the intent of the publishers is happily realized.

LOUIS R. WILSON

Graduate Library School  
University of Chicago

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*The evaluation of higher institutions.* A series of monographs based on the investigation conducted for the Committee on Revision of Standards, Commission on Higher Institutions of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary

*Schools. IV. The library.* By DOUGLAS WAPLES in collaboration with LEON CARNOVSKY, E. W. McDIARMID, JR., LLOYD ROWLAND, and EDWARD A. WIGHT. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936. Pp. xvii+86. \$1.50.

This is a good book and one for all college and university librarians to read. Its purpose, amply heralded in its series title, is no more important to librarians than its implications.

The North Central Association, having discovered that its standards used to evaluate higher educational institutions were no longer adequate, undertook to develop, through a Committee on Revision of Standards, new criteria of measurement. It is a sign of the times that the library should be regarded as of sufficient importance to warrant a monograph along with the faculty, the curriculum, student personnel service, administration, and finance.

The duty of Dr. Waples and his collaborators was to improve the former library standard:

The college shall have a live, well-distributed, professionally administered library of at least 8,000 volumes, exclusive of public documents, bearing specifically upon the subjects taught and with a definite annual appropriation for the purchase of new books and current periodicals. It is urged that such appropriation be at least five dollars per student registered.

The new measures of library adequacy (and the means of securing them) are developed under three heads:

#### *Holdings*

1. The number of general reference books held by the library that are contained on a check-list of selected titles
2. The number of periodicals currently subscribed to which appear on a check-list of periodicals preferred by college libraries

#### *Finance*

3. The average annual expenditure for books and periodicals during the past five years
4. The annual expenditure for library salaries, weighted for the size of the enrolment

#### *Use*

5. The average annual number of "free" loans per student
6. The average annual number of loans to faculty members

Careful comparison of the two measures shows that all points covered in the old are embraced within the new, but with the addition of objective standards to effect the evaluation and with the addition of a new category, "Use."

For holdings, the standards take the form of two check-lists, comprising a sample of the reference collection and of the periodical subscription list respectively. The check-lists are short but statistically reliable—for reference books, 507 titles; for current periodicals, 304 titles.

The financial standards depart from the favorite technique of expressing expenditure on a simple per capita basis. As the study points out, increase in the size of the student body affects the book purchase by producing a demand for more duplicate copies—a minor source of expense. It does not produce a demand for an increased number of different titles. Whether or not a library needs more titles depends not upon enrolment but upon the curriculum and methods of instruction—factors which are common to all colleges. In considering salary expenditures, however, it is necessary to take enrolment into account since the complexity of overhead operations is not correspondingly reduced by a reduction in the size of the student body.

The mechanism of obtaining measures of library excellence as to holdings and finance represents refinement of, and corrections to, more or less common and traditional methods. The data are easily obtained, either by the application of check-lists or from financial and registration records. In the last category, however, the investigators move into new territory. It is eminently reasonable to suppose that the ultimate objective of the college library—i.e., the provision of reading material for its clientèle—should be considered as a test of its adequacy.

The difficulties of establishing such a standard and of collecting data for its use are manifold. Take the case of student reading: this type of use divides itself into "home use" circulation, reserve use, direct use of books at shelves, reading in other libraries of the community, e.g., dormitory and public libraries. The problem involved in collecting data on all these divisions is apparent. The decision to rely on the per capita circulation of "home use" books is, at best, a compromise with the convenience of data collection.

Dr. Waples expresses surprise that detailed records of library use in relation to the student's sex, class program, etc., are not generally available. Such a situation is not surprising to the library administrator. All the data used in the first four measures of library adequacy developed in this study are derived from records maintained for other purposes, such as bookkeeping and registrar's records, or are obtained by the simple application of check-lists to the library under investigation. In neither case is a library required to expand its already expensive system of essential records. Until librarians can be convinced of the value of reading-use records, such data will continue to be difficult to procure. Important as it appears to be, from studies already made by the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago, the value of library-use data has not yet received sufficient advertisement to create a widespread interest and a consequent development of necessary records. There is good reason to suppose that such data would throw light on the solution of problems relating to the selection of books, the apportionment of departmental budgets, and the guidance of students in their use of libraries. It is beyond the scope of Dr. Waples' study to discuss the general application of method to individual libraries. No better way can be thought of to gain the

interest of librarians, however, than to publish detailed directions and forms for collecting and analyzing such data. It is to be hoped that this may be one of the by-products of this investigation.

The measure of faculty use employs the same data as is used for student use and suffers the same disabilities as does the measure of student use. This third type of standard is the most interesting because of its novelty and its possibilities. Lack of detailed data is an obvious handicap to its complete development. Because of this difficulty and because of the qualitative factors inherent in the use of books, this standard is more dependent on the subjective interpretation of the inspector than are the other types.

The chapter on "Unsolved problems" outlines a program of research which would result in the strengthening of the use standard and the extension of our knowledge as to the use of library materials. It is to be regretted that at this stage of library-school development there are few schools with either instructional staffs or school budgets prepared to undertake this kind of research.

The careful reader will observe numerous points of departure for lines of thought about administrative problems. While it may not be news to some of us that sociology instructors generally make long assignments scattered over a large number of titles, whereas psychology instructors tend to concentrate their briefer assignments on a relatively few books, this suggests a more careful consideration than is usually given to the methods of instruction in the handling of assigned-reading books. In the university library this suggests the desirability of an undergraduate open-shelf collection as a better means than the usual reserve room for distributing certain types of material.

The book is written in a compressed style doubtless derived from its foundation on statistical method. Translation of statistical expression into words results in a certain elliptical form of statement demanding a reader's full attention. The reader unfamiliar with statistical method will do well to begin the book with the final summary chapter.

Dr. Waples and the North Central Association are to be thanked for this interesting and suggestive footnote to the new library standards. It is to be hoped that the standards will serve as a model for other regional accrediting associations and that the pooling of data thus possible may result in their continued improvement.

DONALD CONEY

*University of Texas*

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*Some practical problems in cataloging.* By HARRIET DOROTHEA MACPHERSON. With an Introduction by ISABELLA K. RHODES. Chicago: American Library Association, 1936. Pp. xi+[1]+131. \$1.50.

A few months ago the present writer was offered a position in which a thorough knowledge of cataloging was presupposed. As there was time for study before the work would begin, he spent several weeks in reading and re-

reading all that he could find on the subject. Thus it was that he came across the works of Löffler<sup>1</sup> and Sharp<sup>2</sup> and, more recently, Dr. MacPherson's *Some practical problems in cataloging*. Dr. Löffler's book is fine reading, to be sure, but coming as it does after Rudolf Kaiser's excellent article in the *Handbuch der Bibliothekswissenschaft* it appears somewhat slight and superficial. Mr. Sharp's *Cataloguing*, on the other hand, is a real contribution to library economy and is bound to take its place among the significant works on cataloging. Like the article by Kaiser it fully merits Mr. L. Stanley Jast's definition of cataloging itself: "... organized commonsense, based on experience, and applied to the description of printed matter."

Dr. MacPherson's book also merits this characterization, though the work itself is composed from an entirely different angle. While Kaiser and Sharp attempt to give equal treatment to every phase of cataloging, Dr. MacPherson's book is limited to ten rather loosely selected topics. Furthermore, the German and the English librarians are quite as specific on the theoretical as on the practical side, while the American author treats of practical problems only. The one exception is the article on "Co-operative cataloging" which is, in fact, the first serious attempt to present its historical development in this country.

In a work like the present it is inevitable that some topics should be of greater interest than others. It is also inevitable that each reviewer should be differently impressed with their comparative value. The chapter on "Cataloger's reference tools" is among the most useful. It is not exhaustive, and to the specialist it may suggest very little which he does not already know, but it is just the sort of summary of the peculiarities of the more common reference works which the junior cataloger often seeks in vain. It will tell him in the shortest possible time where to look for the information he is seeking. The discussion of "Difficult names and their entries" is another excellent contribution to a most perplexing problem. To be sure, much of what is said may be found in the various cataloging codes, but the author, recognizing this, goes well beyond the mere enumeration of rules. Step by step she shows the reasonableness of each decision, and this is done in the one really helpful way: by explaining the historical development of names in various languages. An excellent addition to this article is the list of "Suggested readings"—fifteen codes of cataloging and ten works on the history of names.

The question of "Notes on catalog cards" has always been a perplexing one. One is never quite sure when they ought to be added and in what form. The author does not solve the problem. We doubt whether it can ever be solved in a uniform and critical manner since it must always depend on the nature of

<sup>1</sup> Karl Löffler, *Einführung in die Katalogkunde* (Leipzig: Hiersemann, 1935). Pp. [viii]+142.

<sup>2</sup> Henry A. Sharp, *Cataloguing, a textbook for use in libraries* (London: Grafton, 1935). Pp. xvii+314.



the book and the usage and requirements of the particular library. Dr. MacPherson's contribution is a critical evaluation of the various rules on this subject and a summary of the whole matter in five guiding principles: conciseness, uniformity in statement, common terminology, definite policy of when to use notes, and an eye for the truly essential and specific.

The article on "Cataloging books in the more familiar European languages" deserves special study. Strange as it may seem, very little has been written on this subject. It appears to be taken for granted that French and German are known by most catalogers and that consequently little need be said on the handling of books in these languages. Miss MacPherson does not share this opinion and, after reading what she has to say, we have no doubt but that even her article does not exhaust the subject. Library schools usually stress the desirability of a knowledge of one or more foreign languages. Unfortunately, this has not as yet been made a strict requirement for the B.S. degree. In fact, only a candidate for a Ph.D. degree must pass the usual language tests. It is customary, of course, to specify that a candidate must have studied a language a number of years, but experience teaches that such records, whether college or high school, never really settle the student's language ability. Years of study have very little to do with one's ultimate ability to use the language. Then, too, the sort of language instruction which is usually given in schools will be found of slight value in cataloging and bibliography. The idiomatic language of belles-lettres which one is asked to study has very little to do with the technical one of most of the books which must be cataloged. The reviewer has come to the conclusion that the sort of language the cataloger needs can be studied only in the books which he has to use. Among the best textbooks for the cataloger are the various bibliographies and catalogs which he handles daily. He has gained more useful French from a study of a few entries in Brunet's *Manuel* than from the years of study of the language at college. He knew nothing of Italian and has never had any formal instruction in either Spanish or Dutch, but constant use of Fumagalli's *Bibliografia* and Korevaar's *Titelbeschrijving* has taught him enough of these languages to enable him to feel fairly sure of his ground.

Booksellers' catalogs are among the best textbooks, especially when they are prepared with the neatness and care found in the Gilhofer and Ranschburg series. Bibliographies are even better, and no serious cataloger should neglect them. Then there are the fine grammars in the Gaspey-Otto-Sauer series of practically every significant language. With such material at hand there is no real excuse for a one- or two-language cataloger. Native ability counts, of course, but industry and application lead the farthest.

Something remains to be said of the book as a whole. Based as it is on lectures delivered to students with little or no cataloging experience, the treatment is naturally elementary. But, far from being a demerit, this is perhaps the book's chief value. For the expert is able to help himself. At the most he

needs only the incentive. To the beginner, on the other hand, all aids are of value. And not the least of these is a clear presentation of what may appear to be quite obvious problems.

ARTHUR BERTHOLD

*Union Library Catalog  
of the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area*

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*Manual of cataloging and classification for elementary and small high school libraries.* By MARGARET FULLERTON JOHNSON. 2d ed., revised. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1935. Pp. x+47+[2].

This is a new edition of a very practical and handy little manual published in 1929. Revisions have resulted, the author tells us, from its actual use in classwork at Wayne University, Detroit, and also from the suggestions of school librarians and others who have found it helpful.

The changes in the text are very minor, consisting of a few added suggestions for the practical cataloging of books in a school library and some changes in class numbers suggested in the earlier edition. A section on mechanical preparation of books for the shelves has been added. Among the changes in class numbers is that of motion pictures from a 778 to a 770 classification and that of biography from 92 to B. A suggestion made in the earlier book that the fiction follow the 800's on the shelves is omitted. A statement that many libraries do not differentiate between American and English literature, using the 820 class for both, is added.

The concisely stated section on "Preparation of books" with its definite instructions is a valuable addition to the book and should be exceedingly useful to the inexperienced or untrained librarian in school or public library.

The very paucity of changes found necessary in the manual after the practical tests to which it has been submitted in the past five years demonstrates its usefulness as a tool for the school- or small-library cataloger. For teacher-librarians in elementary schools who have had no library training, it should be listed among "first purchase" items.

AGATHA L. SHEA

*Chicago Public Library*

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*A classification for medical libraries.* By CYRIL C. BARNARD. London: Percy Lund, Humphries & Co., 1936. Pp. 142. 10s. 6d.

The Barnard Classification is based on a combination of other systems. The author uses Cutter's System of Notation, incorporating with it some details from the Library of Congress Classification. The idea of form division is from Dewey's Decimal Classification; that of the Local List from Cutter's, its actual form being that of an unpublished list of Mr. Lawrence A. Burgess. The author frankly states, "Had I known of this very practical scheme (Boston Medical Library Classification) . . . the present work would in all probability not have come into existence."

The principle underlying the scheme is "that of specific entry, i.e., one place for each topic under which are grouped all its aspects." Books on the thyroid, its anatomy, pathology, and physiology are all placed together. The author attempts to avoid "cross-division" (cross-reference). In parts of the scheme he gives in brackets alternative symbols, but *see* and *see also* are used frequently.

The notation is alphabetical, with the exception of the Local (geographical) List, which is numerical. The first place in the symbol is known as the class; the second, as the division; the third, as the subdivision; and the fourth, as the section. Classes are logically arranged from Generalia; Fundamental sciences through Dentistry, Veterinary medicine, and Medical sociology. The scheme is all-inclusive.

In the Introduction we find detailed directions for the use of the tables that follow, and throughout the book we find explanatory notes on separate classes. These are invaluable as a key to the use of the scheme. The list of main classes is followed by a synopsis of the scheme. This repeats the class letters but adds to them letters for divisions. The next table adds letters for subdivisions and sections.

In classes F-O, diseases are arranged according to their causes. In class U (Specialties of medicine) divisions UE-UV are arranged anatomically according to the organ affected. Besides representing specialties, they form a complete anatomical classification of the human body, which can be used to subdivide other parts of the scheme. In case any of the diseases in F-O occur locally, or if diseases in UE-UV are due to specific causes, the relationship is shown by combining notations. *Lupus* might be JCUR, Tuberculosis of the skin; or URBJC, Tuberculosis under Skin diseases. (B is a letter used as a tool for separating two notations and is not a part of the symbol or call number.)

The Local List can be used to divide any subject geographically. Thus LF 23 is Malaria in India. Main-class letters—such as D, History; E, Epidemiology; P, Pathology; Q, Diagnosis; R, Treatment—can be used as divisions or subdivisions in classes F-O or in divisions UE-UV, i.e., JHQ, Diagnosis of pneumonia; UKFD, History of eye-glasses. Form divisions in class A can be used to subdivide any other class, i.e., UEAN, *Atlas of osteology*.

In making these combinations care should be used. The new symbol must not conflict with one that has already been used in the scheme. For instance, UIQ could mean Diseases of the meninges, or could mean Diagnosis of the nervous diseases; UIR could mean Diseases of the *dura mater*, or could be used for Treatment of nervous diseases.

The Local List divides the world into large groups; then into smaller divisions. Although there are no decimal points used, it is made on the plan of Dewey. North Africa, 13; Libya, 131; West Africa, 14; and the arrangement on the shelf is 13, 131, 14. The list is very complete and has an excellent index.

The List of Parasites is very detailed. Its purpose is to enable books or pamphlets on a particular parasite to be quickly assigned to their appropriate place in the classification. It is free from cross-references.

The General Index is of the specific type as in Brown's *Subject Classification*, rather than relative as in Dewey's. It is an aid rather than a substitute for classification. "Alternative class-marks" are shown in square brackets. A symbol preceded by three dots (...) is one that is used only for subdivisions, or after the second letter in the symbol. PQ=Hypertrophy, but when one wishes to denote Hypertrophy of the heart, one omits the P and uses UHOQ.

It is quite apparent that the Barnard Classification was made expressly for a tropical library. Mr. Barnard is the librarian of the London School of Tropical Medicine. The large space devoted to Bacteriology and Parasitology (classes H-N) is useful in such a library, especially for the librarian who has learned the classification through years of constant use. But for the average medical library this section is too detailed, and the crowding of specialties all into one class makes the scheme one-sided. The classification might be made workable by using only symbols of two letters—the main-class letter and the letter for division—reserving the more detailed tables for allocating material to its proper place in the scheme.

The mnemonic feature is good if handled with care. Form divisions should be used sparingly. The most necessary is Periodicals. In many cases the subject matter of a book is more important than the form in which it is presented.

The table of parasites and class X, Veterinary medicine, would be invaluable for reference in an agricultural library.

The whole scheme seems to be of more value as a handbook than as a classification. The classifier who is not familiar with medical terminology will find here information on anatomical and causal relationships. The notes throughout are excellent guides. The cataloger or research librarian would be benefited by its use as a reference tool.

SUE BIETHAN

*General Library*  
*University of Michigan*

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*Enoch Pratt Free Library staff instruction book. Detailed methods and practices in all departments and branches.* Edited by the STAFF INSTRUCTION BOOK COMMITTEE. ("A fiftieth anniversary publication.") Baltimore, Md.: Enoch Pratt Free Library, 1935. Pp. unnumbered. \$2.50. (Mimeographed.)

"CONSULT THE BOOK!" is the emphatic instruction given to the staff of the Enoch Pratt Free Library in the Introduction to its recently issued *Staff instruction book*. And the staff member, whether veteran or recruit, can scarcely fail to find what he needs to know about the multifarious activities, routines, and services of his library in this comprehensive and easily consulted manual.

The need for the compilation of an instruction book of this kind is stated in the first paragraph as follows: "In an institution as large and of so manifold services as this, it saves time and confusion if uniform procedures for all departments and branches are carefully worked out and the information is recorded in black and white for all to understand and follow."

To accomplish this purpose requires 1,341 numbered paragraphs of instruction, an Index of about 1,600 entries, and an Appendix containing samples of 256 forms used by the library in its work. Truly the road to administrative competence and uniformity is a difficult one in a large library system! Compilation of the volume as a whole has naturally been a co-operative enterprise in which there have been many collaborators. The final editing was intrusted to a Staff Instruction Book Committee, under the chairmanship of Miss Pauline McCauley.

Staff manuals of a more or less similar type are to be found in growing numbers in libraries, in government offices, and in business houses. In general, they may be classified as follows: (1) organization manuals, which describe the policies of the institution and the framework of its organization; (2) staff-instruction manuals, which supply information necessary for all staff members; (3) schemes of service, which show in detail the grades in the personnel system; and (4) departmental manuals, which describe the functions and routines of particular departments. The *Baltimore Staff instruction book* may be characterized as an omnibus manual which attempts to combine in a single volume all four of these types or purposes. The scheme of library service is not developed in detail, possibly because of special local conditions. Descriptions of the functions of the various departments seem sufficiently complete, but additional intradepartmental instructions may sometimes be required as supplements to the manual.

Certain items of special interest often omitted from staff manuals are found in the volume under review. Among these features are included a brief history of the library, a statistical summary of its growth, an organization chart, and biographical information concerning the members of the board of library trustees.

Regular revision of the manual is contemplated through the insertion of new and modified rules and procedures in the copies officially used throughout the system. Whether this can be done as conveniently in a bound volume of the Baltimore type as in a loose-leaf manual such as that used in Queens Borough depends upon the number of changes found necessary in actual practice. No doubt the bound form has been deliberately chosen in Baltimore.

The compilation of this volume appears to have been done with care and competence. Moreover, its contents are presented with a rather surprising degree of interest. The functions of each unit in the library organization are usually clearly described in one or more paragraphs introducing the work of the department. Library policies and the reasons for the adoption of certain procedures are introduced at appropriate points. In one or two instances

terminology used in the organization chart is not wholly consistent with the descriptive text, but in general it is difficult to find flaws in the careful editing of the various sections of the manual.

This *Instruction book*, of course, is primarily a tool for the use of the Enoch Pratt Free Library. Its value to chief librarians and heads of departments in other libraries and to students of library administration, while secondary to this major purpose, is nevertheless great. From the point of view of the library school it may be remarked that publication of manuals of this sort for libraries of varying types should perhaps result in decreasing the need for the intensive study of detailed routines and may permit greater concentration on the principles and objectives of library administration.

CARLETON B. JOECKEL

Graduate Library School  
University of Chicago

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*National libraries and foreign scholarship. Notes on recent selections in social science.* By DOUGLAS WAPLES and HAROLD D. LASSWELL. ("University of Chicago studies in library science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936. Pp. xiii+151+[1]. \$1.50.

This small volume is something of a pioneer venture in a relatively unexplored field of the analysis of contemporary culture. It will prove valuable and stimulating to librarians, to social scientists, and to all literate persons who prefer cosmopolitanism to parochialism. It is concerned with the degree to which libraries acquire books and periodicals published in other countries. It is concerned with the degree to which social scientists in various countries have ready access, through their national libraries, to significant contributions published by their confreres abroad. It is concerned, finally, with the degree to which national provincialism, among other factors, has recently restricted the acquisition of foreign books by major libraries.

The authors do not pretend to have arrived at wholly definitive answers to these and related questions, nor is their study an exhaustive analysis of the problem. "This essay," says Professor Waples overmodestly in his Foreword, "is a collection of travel notes." It is, in fact, a compilation of highly interesting data and a most useful methodological contribution to bibliographical analysis. Professor Waples prepared a sample list of recent German, French, English, and American books in economics, law, government, and general social science. He then observed the distribution of these books in sample leading libraries of Western Europe and of the United States. The results of the analysis are presented in numerous charts and tables. The significance of the analysis is set forth in succinct and pertinent discussion. Professor Lasswell's contribution is a provocative chapter (one among seven) on "Political implications."

Neither the facts adduced nor the many suggestive conclusions arrived at

can be summarized in a review. The volume deserves reading, not paraphrasing. Unlike many books, and unlike most books about books, it is readable. Suffice it to say here that contemporary impoverishment, insecurity, and political totalitarianism have not yet led to quite such a measure of bibliographical and intellectual autarchy as is commonly supposed to exist. "During the present period of uncertainty," says Professor Lasswell in comment on the division and disintegration of Western culture which began in 1914, "intellectuals have managed to retain much of their common inheritance from the optimistic years of an expanding European civilization." Professor Waples observes, however, that both humanists and social scientists are "challenged by the effects of national propaganda upon libraries. Neither can remain indifferent to political threats in the directions where they reach farthest, as in the selection of current documents for use by students in the years ahead. Comparative studies of national collections are among the first lines of defense."

FREDERICK L. SCHUMAN

*University of Chicago*

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*Guide to the diplomatic history of the United States, 1775-1921.* By SAMUEL FLAGG BEMIS and GRACE GARDNER GRIFFIN. Washington: Library of Congress, 1935. Pp. xvii+979. \$2.50.

The peculiar qualifications of those who essay the compilation of a "guide" usually determine its eventual utility to the inquisitive scholar and interested layman. Dr. Samuel Flagg Bemis, a historian of diplomacy, and Miss Grace Gardner Griffin, a bibliographer of historical writings, have designed this volume "to put the reader quickly in directed and helpful touch with the already vast quantity of material, printed and unprinted, now available for the diplomatic history of the United States."

To perform this service comprehensively and efficiently, the editors have chosen to present their bibliographical suggestions in a topical and chronological arrangement and to predicate these items with appropriate "remarks on the sources" (printed and unprinted). Every initial title entry is tagged with a serial number (bold-faced type) within brackets. This permits a cross-reference form consisting of author and abbreviated title with accompanying serial number (conventional type) set off by parentheses. A detailed but carefully planned Table of Contents has eliminated the appending of what could easily have been an unwieldy and confusing Index. The latter, restricted simply to authors, is entirely satisfactory.

Introduced by chapter i, "The Revolution, 1775-1783," Part I is concluded chronologically with "The World War, and Peace Settlement, 1914-1921" (chap. xii) and topically with a section devoted to "General works, historical publications, and aids" (chap. xxiii). Historical circumstances apparently dictated the choice of these terminal dates: the "Beginnings of American



foreign contacts" date from 1775; 1921 witnessed a relative but brief "return to normalcy" in the diplomatic activities of the United States; while the later years, the editors recognize, have been adequately surveyed in that other bibliographical contribution of William L. Langer and Hamilton Fish Armstrong, *Foreign affairs bibliography: a selected and annotated list of books on international relations, 1919-1932* (New York, 1933).

This reviewer declines to conjure up one or more definitive conclusions from the segregation into geographical or political units of 5,318 initial title entries (articles, autobiographies, biographies, memoirs, printed and official documents of the several governments, pamphlets, published and prospective monographs). This apportionment does serve, however, to indicate what subjects have chiefly attracted students of American diplomacy. Those publications concerning the relations of the United States with Europe, and Great Britain in particular, stand indubitably first. Hispanic America, the Far and Near East, and Africa follow in that order. Since 1900 the published evidence has pointed to an accelerating curiosity in Hispanic-American culture and politics.

Part II, "Remarks on the sources," is the product of a superb effort to describe the character, shortcomings, and strength of the basic materials cited in Part I. The division of labor is confined to three chapters, the titles of which are self-explanatory: i, "The nature of the sources for the diplomatic history of the United States"; ii, "Printed state papers" (those of the United States, foreign governments, and international organizations); iii, "Manuscript sources: archival collections in the United States and abroad" (private and public). After an examination of these contents-notes or textual remarks, the reviewer could sincerely appreciate the unselfish and idealistic motives which prompted the editors to suggest, in several instances, with an almost fanatical insistence that particular sources "must be consulted" (p. 47); that "definitive research must cover . . ." (p. 61); that the Pickett Papers "must be used with the diplomatic archives of the United States government and of the various European governments and Mexico" (p. 348). Such admonitions are apt to ruffle the temper of experienced scholars and stifle the enthusiasm of those who are handicapped by finances and geographical isolation. Nevertheless, the advice is sound.

To the editors' solicitation for "corrections and additions" the contributions should be a paltry few. A reference to "such few surviving Fillmore Papers" (p. 478) beggars the forty-odd volumes which are in possession of the Buffalo Historical Society. Through a faulty translation of *eine Frau* (p. 644) the contents-note suffixed to Helmuth Rogge's *Friedrich von Holstein Lebensbekenntnis im Briefen an eine Frau* (Berlin, 1932) designates the letters there-in published as being "from Holstein to his wife." Friedrich von Holstein died a bachelor. Those letters were addressed to Ida von Stülpnagel, his cousin. Employment of the descriptive but slang expression "nasty cracks" (p. 573)

does not add to the dignity of the volume. *Ibero-amerikanisches archiv* (Berlin and Bonn: Ibero-amerikanisches Institut, 1924—) is an essential publication omitted from an otherwise complete list of "Historical journals and publications of learned societies," a subdivision of chapter xxiii.

The editors pay deserved tribute to Dr. Herbert Putnam, "that organizer of opportunity"; users of this volume will recognize the fitness of having the "opportunity" presented to Dr. Bemis and Miss Griffin.

GUSTAVE A. NUERMBERGER

*Duke University Library*

I have been hoping somewhere to see, perhaps in one of our library periodicals, a review of Samuel Flagg Bemis and Grace Gardner Griffin's *Guide to the diplomatic history of the United States, 1775-1921*. Published in 1935 by the Library of Congress, in 979 pages, at what seems a bargain price (\$2.50), this document deserves wide publicity and will probably meet with much use.

While not an essential reference tool for many small, or even some medium-sized, public libraries, Bemis and Griffin's *Guide* ought to be in all college, university, state, and historical libraries. When it is realized that the *Guide to historical literature* (1931), an indispensable reference tool similarly loaded with bibliographical data (1,222 pp.), retails for \$10.50, and that Commager's *Documents of American history* (1934), a very useful compilation but lacking the wealth of citation of either of the *Guides*, sells for \$4.00, I should hesitate, in almost any institutional library, to decide not to invest in this most recent publication.

The second part of the Bemis and Griffin *Guide* is perhaps of more general interest than is the first part. Chapter iii, "Manuscript sources: archival collections in the United States and abroad," is especially timely. Footnotes for this chapter are important, while in the text occasional obeisance is made to the advance of micro-photography. Along with reference to transcripts and facsimiles of foreign documents in the Library of Congress, for example, are mentioned films and photo-films of material in the archives of the Ministère des Affaires Étrangères of France. On pages 941-42, also, there is an interesting list of "Periodical publications relating to archives."

Still, "General works, historical publications, and aids," which is chapter xxiii of Part I, is exceedingly interesting also, although many libraries have most of the information in other forms. The sections on historical journals and publications of learned societies, guides to indexes to newspapers, lists of doctoral dissertations, and present-day agencies for the dissemination of information on international affairs are only a few of the ramifications of a chapter worth close examination. Both parts of the work are generously endowed with footnotes, in themselves occasionally entertaining, and in some instances in the reviewer's special avocational field of interest surprisingly up

to date and comprehensive. References to indexes and catalogs of government documents, foreign as well as American, abound in chapter ii of Part II, "Printed state papers."

R. WEBB NOYES

General Library  
University of Michigan

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*Handelingen van het Derde Wetenschappelijk Vlaamsch Congres voor Boek-en Bibliotheekwezen. Leuven, 6-8 April, 1934. With English summaries. Gent: Drukkerij, 1935. Pp. 136+[1].*

The third conference of Flemish librarians at Louvain (April 6-8, 1934) has produced a volume of proceedings which deserves far more attention in other countries than it has yet received. The present notice is therefore not out of date. Scholarly libraries in Belgium should interest foreign librarians especially, because of the impressive plans for rebuilding and extending the Royal Library in Brussels, the extent to which Belgian collections contain the best foreign works, and the zeal with which Belgian librarians have studied the problems of scholarship and of education that are largely peculiar to Belgium. All three of these conditions are reflected in the present collection of papers.

There are eight papers in all, which range in subject from paleography to a description of books in utopia. We have, for instance, a description of a sixteenth-century manuscript by Lucas d'Heere, the establishment of whose authorship was a scholarly feat. Of comparable interest is a historical account of the "Dame Fortune" colophon of Jan van Doesborch. Also historical is an appreciation of Jean-Pie Namur and his *Manuel du bibliothécaire*.

Of more concern to the administrator, perhaps, are papers on the difficulties caused by the editors of scientific journals who capriciously change their formats, on the classification of sciences by Comte-Oswald, and on a classification of books most useful to school and other libraries devoted to educational purposes. To those of us who are wedded to single classification schemes because of their efficacy as filing devices, such accounts of truly functional classifications should prove illuminating.

In one of the two remaining papers Dr. Jules Van Hore, of the Royal Library, gives a most useful description of Belgian bibliographies from 1930 to 1933—the period in which the depression nearly stopped the advances which Belgium had made beyond most other countries in the direction of an international catalog. His classification of current work in bibliography and his clear indication of what remains to be done should benefit students of bibliography everywhere.

The climactic paper concerns "The book of the future." It aptly characterizes the talking book, the filmed book, and other actualities, then passes on to delightful conceptions of the future book culled from the utopias of Swift, Lasswitz, Paul Scheerbart, Bergerac, H. G. Wells, and Robida.

A quality of imagination pervades the small volume which would go far to reduce the weight of the annual proceedings of other library associations.

DOUGLAS WAPLES

*Graduate Library School  
University of Chicago*

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*Literary pioneers. Early American explorers of European culture.* By ORIE WILLIAM LONG. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1935. Pp. vi+[i]+267.

Dr. Long has not added materially to our knowledge of the influence of early nineteenth-century German scholarship in America, although he has written (one might almost say "compiled") a pleasant account of the travels of Ticknor, Everett, Cogswell, Bancroft, Longfellow, and Motley in Europe, and notably in Germany.

Each of these six men, who have been selected as "literary pioneers," had a *Wanderjahr* or more. Some of them devoted it largely to study in Germany. Several of them came into personal contact with Goethe. Each of them came back to America with new ideas about education. But one wonders if Henry Barnard didn't have a more widespread influence on education and hence on the "American intellectual life in the nineteenth century" than these half-dozen men put together. Barnard did not become a literary figure, but, for that matter, neither did Cogswell.

To the librarian the most important study in the book is that of Joseph Green Cogswell, for Cogswell received "library training" under Georg Friedrich Benecke, professor-librarian at Göttingen. Cogswell, who was later to exert a great influence on American libraries through his intimate association with the Astor Library, was greatly impressed with the library at Göttingen. Taking advantage of the opportunity, he studied library methods and thus laid the foundation for the great New York Public Library—perhaps his greatest work. Soon after Cogswell returned, he was placed in charge of the Harvard College Library, which he reorganized on the lines of the Göttingen library. Here, too, his influence is felt.

George Ticknor had been likewise impressed with the Göttingen library, and in a letter which Long quotes, had compared that library with the library at Harvard in terms which are very interesting today. Dr. Long calls Ticknor "the chief founder of our earliest public library." He undoubtedly refers to Ticknor's connection with the Boston Public Library. Although the Peterborough, New Hampshire, public library does not rank as a great library, it still can claim to be the first "public" (i.e., tax-supported and open for free use) library in America; and surely Benjamin Franklin's connection with the Philadelphia Free Library cannot be overlooked.

GILBERT H. DOANE

*University of Nebraska*

*Methodology of social science research. A bibliography.* By DOROTHY CAMPBELL CULVER. ("Publications of the Bureau of Public Administration, University of California.") Berkeley: University of California Press, 1936. Pp. x+159. \$2.00.

To any group of professionals directly engaged with administrative problems, the literature on methods of research is not likely to appeal. Librarians as a class have been so deeply involved in practice that theoretical interests in their craft have but recently appeared. Particularly for this reason, a representative bibliography of literature on research methods in the social sciences should be commended to librarians. Until the experience of students in other fields of social science is used for all it is worth in the study of problems in librarianship, it is not likely that a respectable science of librarianship will emerge from the present corpus of testimony regarding library problems.

The list of briefly annotated references is naturally arranged in the logical sequence of any systematic research. The major divisions are definition of problems; sources; collection of data, with reference to typical techniques; analysis and interpretation; and preparation of manuscript. The several fields whose special methodology is covered are sociology, rural sociology, geography, education, economics, agricultural economics, politics and law, criminology, anthropology, and history.

Of particular interest to students of librarianship is the section on sources which concerns use of the library. The discussion covers the catalog; indexes for book, periodical, and press; abstracts; society publications; yearbooks and encyclopedias; biographical dictionaries; directories and union lists; bibliographies and guides; government documents; special library collections; and check-lists for research.

The quality of the selection is not bad, judged by the sort of estimate a reviewer must make of the titles in the fields he knows best. There are some important works omitted in such sections of the "Methodology of special fields," and there are some trivial works included—as one might expect in a bibliography of such wide scope. Yet, as a whole, the compilation is a very useful tool, and the more it is used by librarians for their own guidance as well as for their readers', the better for both.

DOUGLAS WAPLES

*Graduate Library School  
University of Chicago*

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*Norway's relation to Scandinavian unionism, 1815-1871.* By THEODORE JORGENSEN. Northfield, Minn.: St. Olaf College Press, 1935. Pp. v+530. \$3.50.

The appearance in English of a book of 530 pages on Norway's relation to Scandinavian unionism is best explained by the fact that the author is of Nor-

wegian parentage and a professor of Norwegian history and literature at St. Olaf College, the book being issued by the press of that institution. The subject is one on which little has appeared in English; the present volume is, no doubt, the first comprehensive study so far presented. Reference to the extensive Bibliography (pp. 466-530) will give some idea of the great importance attached to the subject by writers of the three countries most nearly concerned—Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. That it is likely to arouse frequent discussion also in the future seems reasonable in view of the present political situation. Professor Jorgenson's work should therefore prove a welcome and serviceable contribution—one with which no scholarly library can well dispense.

As there are historians of Scandinavian extraction in several American institutions who will, no doubt, write on the historical and political value of the present volume to students of Scandinavian history, the reviewer will confine his remarks chiefly to its bibliographical aspects. A Bibliography of nearly seventy pages is in itself an indication that the writer has not taken his investigations lightly. It contains a mass of material which could hardly have been examined without visits to the national libraries of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. American libraries contain only a fraction of the works cited.

As to form of entries the Bibliography leaves much to be desired, but this is a defect so common that it would ordinarily be passed unnoticed. It is not often that one detects in the bibliographical notices accompanying the works of American scholars any evidence that they have mastered the rudiments of bibliographical entry. Perhaps this is not to be wondered at. After years of hard work, collecting information and whipping it into shape for publication, the writer is often only too glad to delegate the preparation of Bibliography and Index to some secretarial assistant, or, if he gives it his personal attention, he usually reveals unfamiliarity with rules of entry, the results falling short of the standards expected by the professional bibliographer.

In the present instance the writer seems to have stumbled across Karl Dziatzko's rule calling for entry under the *substantivum regens*; cf. his entries (p. 475) under "Foredrag, To"; "Fremtid, Nordens"; (p. 496) "Huusven, Den norske," "Kirke-Tidende, Den nordiske." The rule is not applied consistently, however, for on page 497 we find "Nordisk revy," "Norsk folkeblad," etc. On page 475 the selected works of Hans Järta appear under the editor, Forsell, without entry or reference under Järta. The principle of corporate entry recognized in American bibliographic practice, at any rate since 1876, and definitely formulated by committees of the American and British library associations in 1907, is evidently not accepted by the writer (cf. entry under "Forhandlinger" [p. 475]).

A serial publication, *Norsk bogfortegnelse*, illustrates the futility of entry of such publications under the names of the various editors. One who happens to know the names of the various editors since the first year of publication,

1814, can locate the several series to date; i.e., 1814-47, the publication is noted on page 510, under Nissen; 1848-65, on page 502, under Botten-Hansen; 1866-67, on the same page, under Boeck; 1873-90, on page 505, under Feilberg; and 1891-24, on page 506, under Hafner. There is no entry or reference under "Norsk" or "Bogfortegnelse."

Fortunately this practice of entry under editor has not been applied in the section, "Newspapers and periodicals" (pp. 493-500), where entry is, for the most part, under first word, not an article, with occasional exceptions where the compiler has for some reason reverted to Dziatzko's rule of entry under the first noun.

As for the Index, the compiler has again tried to follow the German rule. As a result entries under names of countries and national adjectives are few and far between. Under "Norway," for instance, there is only one entry, and under "Norwegian" none. The reason for this is that they are scattered about under such headings as "Amalgamation, Norwegian"; "Bitterness in Norway"; "Culture, Norwegian," etc. Double entry would have improved the Index.

Even more serious is entry under the article, e.g., page 519, "*De skandinaviske naturforskeres selskab*," no entry under "Skandinaviske" or "Naturforskeres"; "*Den Constitutionelle*," no entry under "Constitutionelle"; "*Den Frimodige*," no entry under "Frimodige"; etc. To ignore the article in arrangement is accepted by bibliographers throughout the world. Like our Fourth of July, the designation "Seventeenth of May" is so well established that inversion, "May, Seventeenth," should not be necessary (cf. p. 523).

Another point that might be mentioned in this connection is the growing use of the vernacular form of names of rulers, and even of cities, in bibliographical publications. The author is, of course, entirely justified in his consistent use of "Charles John," "Charles XV," etc., but there is something to be said also in favor of "Karl Johan," and "Karl XV." At any rate a reference from the vernacular form would improve the Index, and one must bear in mind that, even in America, familiarity with the original names of rulers, popes, cities, and the like is increasing.

In spite of the extensive Bibliography one notes the absence of several important works: e.g., Överland's *Norges historie, 1814-1902*, his *Illustreret Norges historie, 1885-95* in five volumes, Gjerset's *History of the Norwegian people, Det norske folks historie gjennom tiderne*, by Edvard Bull, etc., 1929—(10th vol. covering 1875-1920, issued in 1935), *Norges historie* of A. Bugge, etc., 1909-17, in twelve volumes. In view of the inclusion of several general works, e.g., Halvorsen's *Norsk forfatterlexikon*, one naturally looks also for the principal general histories. Speaking of Halvorsen's Bibliography brings to mind that the author fails to mention Hjalmar Pettersen's *Bibliotheca norvegica*.

The above remarks are in no sense intended to belittle or to detract from Professor Jorgenson's notable contribution to the literature of Norway's rela-



tion to Scandinavian unionism. The reviewer merely wishes to call attention to errors and shortcomings in the bibliographies and indexes of a majority of our academic and other authors. Should his remarks serve to call attention to these shortcomings and possibly give an impetus to the introduction of some elementary study of bibliographic entry in our schools and universities, he would feel that his chief objective in submitting these criticisms had been gained.

J. C. M. HANSON

*Sister Bay, Wisconsin*

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### ANNOUNCEMENT

The *Library quarterly* announces the appointment of a new advisory editor, Dr. Igino Giordani, chief of the cataloging department of the Vatican Library. Dr. Giordani replaces Eugène, Cardinal Tisserant, whose recent elevation to the position of cardinal and consequent resignation from the post of acting director of the Vatican Library have dictated his withdrawal from the Board of Editors of the *Library quarterly*. The *Quarterly* regrets the loss of so valuable an advisor, but welcomes Dr. Giordani to its editorial staff.

## BOOK NOTES

*A directory of organizations in the field of public administration.* 3d ed. Prepared by PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION CLEARING HOUSE. Chicago: Public Administration Clearing House, 1936. Pp. 180. \$1.00. (Order from Public Administration Service, 850 E. Fifty-eighth St., Chicago.)

This volume is the third edition of the *Directory*, first published by Public Administration Clearing House in 1932. It lists and describes more than five hundred voluntary national organizations of public officials and national organizations active in this important field, including some thirty or more formed since 1934. The *Directory* is a guide to sources of information on all types of governmental problems and an invaluable reference tool for those studying or working in the field of public administration, which is broadly defined as including all functions of government.

It is divided into three sections; the larger portion consists of descriptions of the various national organizations grouped alphabetically. These descriptions give data of founding, name and address of the executive officer, type and number of members, annual dues, fees, average annual expenditures of its secretariat, number of part-time and full-time employees, principal activities, and the periodicals issued. This section is followed by a classified section in which the organizations are grouped according to seventy-six fields of activity. Finally, the various voluntary organizations of the states are listed briefly by states. The *Directory* has been prepared with great care and will be especially useful to librarians in reference and acquisition activities.

*Guide to the official publications of the New Deal administration. Supplement, April 15, 1934—December 1, 1935.* Compiled by JEROME K. WILCOX. Chicago: American Library Association, 1936. Pp. 184 (mimeographed). \$1.75.

This is a supplement to Mr. Wilcox's original work, *Guide to the official publications of the New Deal administration*, which covered the publications of the New Deal agencies from March, 1933, up to April 15, 1934. This list, with its "Additions and corrections to December 1, 1935," includes those issued since April 15, 1934, extending through the Seventy-fourth Congress, 1st Session. It also includes many earlier entries which were omitted from the original list.

In this handbook the author has attempted to list all New Deal publications excepting those relating to unemployment relief, which he has treated separately under the title *Unemployment relief documents*, published by the H. W. Wilson Company. He has also excluded the publications of state planning boards since they are covered in Circular 6 of the U.S. National Resources Board.

This *Supplement* and the original *Guide* will prove most valuable aids to librarians in acquiring and cataloging New Deal publications, as well as in reference work with them. They will also prove to be a most useful tool for all research workers in the social sciences for here is a fairly complete record of the publications in which New Deal policies and activities have been recorded.

*A Hamlet bibliography and reference guide, 1877-1935.* By ANTON ADOLPH RAVEN. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936. Pp. xvi+292. \$3.50.

The present well-printed work continues the bibliography in the Furness *Variorum* edition of *Hamlet*. It comprises 2,169 items, including books, distinct sections or essays in books, plus a "few important discussions . . . not separate sections of books,"

periodical articles, and the more important editions of *Hamlet* issued since the publication of the *New variorum* edition. The arrangement is topical by chapter and section. Most of the items are accompanied by descriptive notes which, in the case of books, include references to reviews. Important items are starred. The book is provided with a good Index and in the body of the work with a full system of cross-references. Although most of the items listed here were previously noted in earlier bibliographies, the present work greatly simplifies the task of the student of Shakespeare's most-studied play by bringing together the references to the more recent publications; and the excellent notes will relieve the investigator of much conning of material extraneous to his problem.

Henry E. Huntington Library and Art Gallery. *Fine books: an exhibition of written and printed books selected for excellence of design, craftsmanship and materials*. San Marino, Calif.: Henry E. Huntington Library and Art Gallery, 1936. Pp. 16+[15]. \$0.50, postpaid.

The exhibition to which this catalog is a guide consists of thirty volumes—seven manuscripts, ten incunabula, three sixteenth-century books, three English illustrated books of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth century, and seven volumes printed after 1895. Although the material covers six hundred years, "the exhibition," as Mr. Robert O. Schad points out in the Introduction, "is intended primarily to give pleasure to the visitor; . . . it is not . . . a historical survey of bookmaking." The books represented, therefore, are chiefly famous productions which repeated exhibiting can never stale.

The descriptive notes in the catalog are popular in style and are chiefly concerned with aesthetic details. Sixteen reproductions add value to this well-printed pamphlet.

*Oklahoma imprints, 1835-1907. A history of printing in Oklahoma before statehood*. By CAROLYN THOMAS FOREMAN. Norman, Okla.: University of Oklahoma Press, 1936. Pp. xxiv+499. \$5.00.

*Oklahoma imprints* differs from other bibliographies of imprints in that it abounds with pages and chapters of material about the Indian nations of the former Territory and includes titles and facsimiles in many Indian languages. It differs from most such bibliographies in that, as its Preface states, it avoids, through its full descriptions and extended comments, "being merely a catalogue of publications." It differs also in the abundance of its newspaper references. In some ways it resembles McMurtrie's *Early printing in Michigan* (1931). Its paper and binding are more satisfactory, but its illustrations, while most interesting, are fewer. The arrangement of titles, especially for separate books and pamphlets, is less effective than that in the Michigan work. On the whole, *Oklahoma imprints* is an excellent book and reflects most creditably the six years of labor that went into it.

*Unemployment relief documents. Guide to the official publications and releases of F.E.R.A. and the 48 state relief agencies*. By JEROME K. WILCOX. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1936. Pp. 95. \$1.60 postpaid.

In this *Guide* Mr. Wilcox has attempted to bring together all the official publications and releases, including many manuscript reports, of the federal and forty-eight state relief agencies. The *Guide* covers approximately the period 1933-35, including some references for 1932 and 1936. It therefore supplements the check-list of *Unemployment and relief documents*, prepared by the Document Section of the University of Chicago libraries and published by the Public Administration Service as its "Bulletin No. 39" in 1934.

Mr. Wilcox not merely provides a most complete and annotated check-list but he also notes many of the existing sources in which materials relating to unemployment and relief are listed.

## BOOKS RECEIVED

The following publications have been received at the offices of the *Library quarterly*:

- Adult education in action.* Edited by MARY L. ELY. New York. American Association for Adult Education, 1936. Pp. xix+480. \$2.25 to members; \$2.75 to others.
- Annual of the University Club, Seventy-second year, 1936-1937.* New York: University Club, 1936. Pp. 157.
- Bibliography and footnotes. A style manual for college and university students.* By PEYTON HURT. ("University of California syllabus series," No. 258.) Berkeley: University of California Press, 1936. Pp. 40. \$0.40.
- Bibliothekswesen.* Von HANS PRAESENT. (Sonder-Abdruck aus *Jahresberichte des literarischen Zentralblattes*, Jahrgang 12, 1935.) Leipzig: Verlag des Börsenvereins der deutschen Buchhändler, 1936. Pp. 35-50.
- A brief history of the Wellesley College Library.* By ETHEL DANE ROBERTS. Wellesley, Mass.: Wellesley College Library, 1936. Pp. 46.
- Children and radio programs. A study of more than three thousand children in the New York metropolitan area.* By AZRIEL L. EISENBERG. New York: Columbia University Press, 1936. Pp. xvi+240. \$3.00.
- Educational film catalog. A classified list of 1175 non-theatrical films with a separate title and subject index.* Compiled by DOROTHY E. COOK and EVA COTTER RAHBK-SMITH. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1936. Pp. xi+[i]+134. \$2.00; with quarterly supplements for two years. \$4.00.
- The enchanted glass. The Elizabethan mind in literature.* By HARDIN CRAIG. New York: Oxford University Press, 1936. Pp. ix+[ii]+293. \$2.50.
- The evaluation of higher institutions. A series of monographs based on the investigation conducted for the Committee on Revision of Standards, Commission on Higher Institutions of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. I. Principles of accrediting higher institutions.* By GEORGE F. ZOOK and M. E. HAGGERTY. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936. Pp. xvii+202. \$2.00.
- The evaluation of higher institutions. A series of monographs based on the investigation conducted for the Committee on Revision of Standards, Commission on Higher Institutions of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. VI. Administration.* By JOHN DALE RUSSELL and FLOYD W. REEVES. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936. Pp. xx+285. \$3.00.

- Handbook of adult education in the United States*, 1936. Compiled under the auspices of the American Association for Adult Education, DOROTHY ROWDEN, editor. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1936. Pp. ix+423. \$1.75 to members; \$2.25 to others.
- Harvard library notes*. No. 27, June, 1936. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Library, 1936. Pp. 95-135.
- The Huntington Library bulletin*, No. 9, April, 1936. ("Huntington Library publications.") Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1936. Pp. [i]+166+[1]. \$2.50.
- An index to folk dances and singing games*. Compiled by the STAFF OF THE MUSIC DEPARTMENT, MINNEAPOLIS PUBLIC LIBRARY. Chicago: American Library Association, 1936. Pp. xiv+202. \$2.00.
- International Institute of Agriculture. *Library readers' handbook*. Rome: International Institute of Agriculture, 1936. Pp. 8.
- Die Kataloge der grösseren Bibliotheken des deutschen Sprachgebietes. Ergebnisse einer Umfrage des Ausschusses für Sachkatalogisierung vom 1. September, 1933*. Herausgeber: HANS TREBST. Berlin: Oskar Schloss, 1935. Pp. xv+188. Rm. 21.
- The libraries of Washington. A study of the governmental and non-governmental libraries in the District of Columbia in relation to the units of government and other organizations which they serve*. By DAVID SPENCE HILL. Chicago: American Library Association, 1936. Pp. xvi+296 (planographed). \$3.50.
- Library service in a suburban area. A survey and a program for Westchester County, New York*. By EDWARD A. WIGHT and LEON CARNOVSKY. Chicago: American Library Association, 1936. Pp. xi+162 (planographed). \$1.25.
- Manual of foreign languages. For the use of printers and translators*. Third edition, revised and enlarged. By GEORGE F. VON OSTERMANN and A. E. GIEGENGACK. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1936. Pp. ix+347. \$1.25.
- Memory or the invisible library*. By R. P. BYERS. ("Superuniversity studies," No. 5.) Boston: Superuniversity Publications, 324 Newbury St., 1936. Pp. 20. \$0.50.
- Mind or the reference library*. By R. P. BYERS. ("Superuniversity studies," No. 6.) Boston: Superuniversity Publications, 324 Newbury St., 1936. Pp. 20. \$0.50.
- The papers of the Bibliographical Society of America*. Vol. XXX (1936), Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936. Pp. 90. \$2.00.
- Public documents. Papers presented at the 1935 Conference of the American Library Association*. Edited by A. F. KUHLMAN. Chicago: American Library Association, 1936. Pp. 220 (planographed). \$2.00.
- Rocky Mountain life in literature. A descriptive bibliography*. By LEVETTE JAY DAVIDSON. Denver: University of Denver Bookstore, 1936. Pp. [iii]+25. \$0.35 each; ten or more, \$0.25 each.

- The Saturday letters.* By RAYMOND E. MANCHESTER. Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio: F. W. Orth Co., 1936. Pp. [41].
- School and college library practice.* By MONICA CANT. ("Practical library handbooks," No. 2.) London: George Allen & Unwin, 1936. Pp. 144. 5s. (\$1.30, postpaid, if copies are delivered direct from London through H. W. Wilson Co.; \$1.25, postpaid, if copies are filled from H. W. Wilson Co. stock.)
- Science Museum, South Kensington. *Classification for works on pure and applied science in the Science Museum Library.* Third edition. London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1936. Pp. 132. 5s.
- Shakespeare's Julius Caesar.* Interlinear edition prepared by GEORGE COFFIN TAYLOR and REED SMITH. Boston: Ginn, 1936. Pp. xli+155. \$0.52.
- Shakespeare's Macbeth.* Interlinear edition prepared by GEORGE COFFIN TAYLOR and REED SMITH. Boston: Ginn, 1936. Pp. xlvii+144. \$0.52.
- Social work as a profession.* Second edition. By ESTHER LUCILE BROWN. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1936. Pp. [iv]+126. \$0.75.
- Some general canons of literary criticism determined from an analysis of art.* By PAUL F. SPECKBAUGH. Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America, 1936. Pp. xvi+193.
- The special library in business. What a special library can do for a business organization.* Compiled by the PUBLICATION COMMITTEE of the SPECIAL LIBRARIES ASSOCIATION. New York: Special Libraries Association, 1936. Pp. 16. \$0.50.
- Specimens of reading lists.* Selected, arranged, and described by F. K. W. DRURY. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1936. Pp. unnumbered. \$0.60.
- The Townsend crusade. An impartial review of the Townsend movement and the probable effects of the Townsend Plan.* By COMMITTEE ON OLD AGE SECURITY OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY FUND, INC. New York: Twentieth Century Fund, Inc., 1936. Pp. 93. \$0.25.
- The University Club Library bulletin. A selected list of recent accessions, November 1, 1935—May 1, 1936.* New York: University Club, 1936. Pp. 36.
- Wesleyan University. Olin Memorial Library. *Library handbook.* Second edition, 1934-35. Compiled by FREMONT RIDER. Middletown, Conn.: Wesleyan University, Olin Memorial Library, 1934. Pp. 92.

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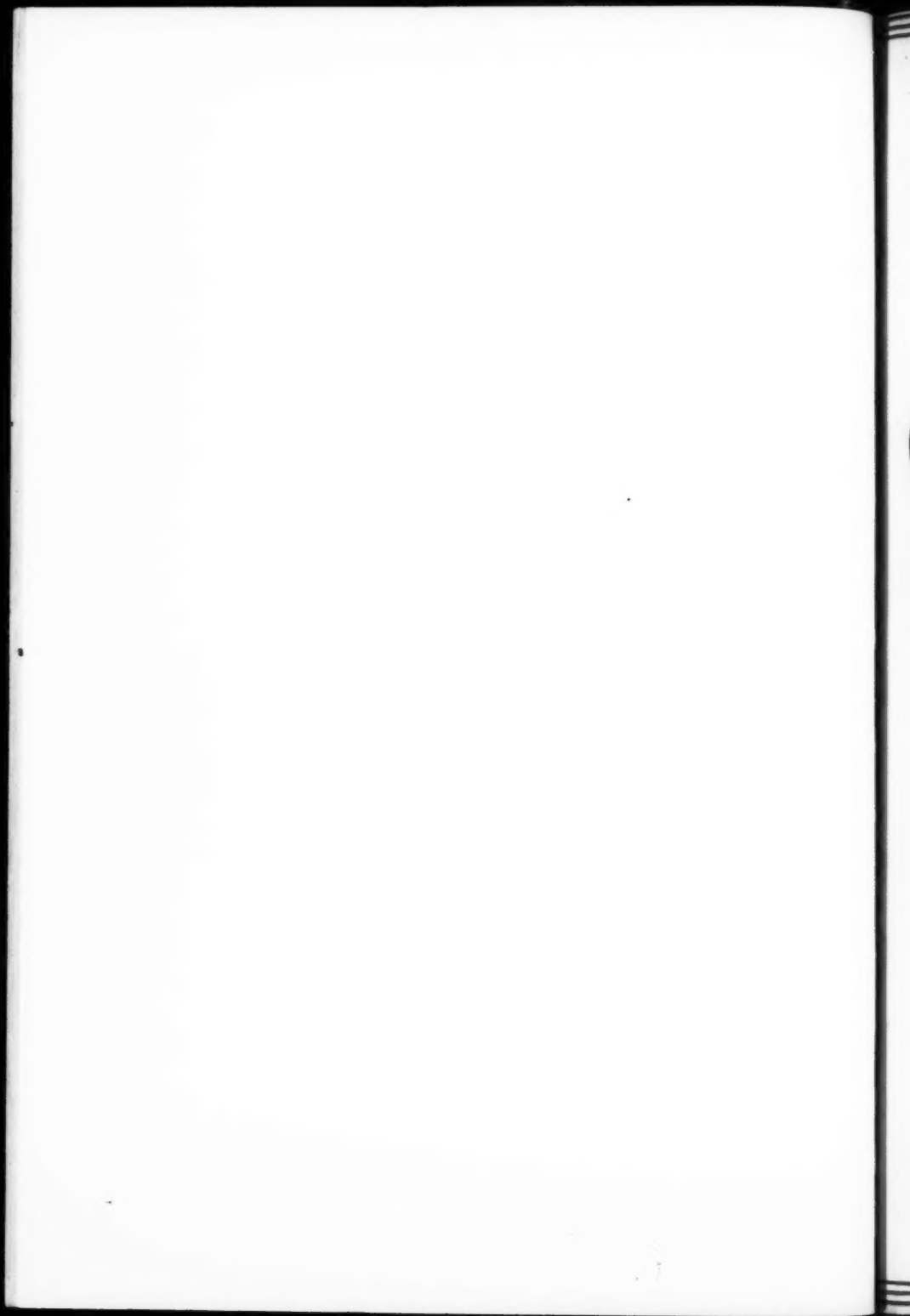
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OCT 23 1936

# THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY



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The following are authorized agents:

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